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ABSTRACT

This collection contains 24 articles dealing with career counseling and related research. Included in the volume are the following articles: "A Management Approach, Function and Counselling in Guidance/Application in the Federal Penitentiary Environment," by Pierre Dodier; "A Description of the Alternate School in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan," by Walter J. Kawula; "A Career Education Model Based on Young People's Vocational Development," by Pierrette Dupont; "Counselling Women for New Skills and New Opportunities," by Audrey F. Swail; "Directions: An Outline of the CGCA Position Paper and Resource Book," by David Studd and John Wallace; "Counselling the Unemployed," by Oswald Bratfisch; "Bridging the Gap: Cooperative Education-Career Education," by Keith Coviello, Hank Froese, Jim O'Connor, and Vi Trivett; "Career Awareness Programme," by the Ottawa Board of Education; "Peer Career Counselling: An Educational Training Model," by M. Honore France; "Effective Job Placement of the Disabled/Disadvantaged Person," by Barbara Dubuc and Patricia Rogers; "Advances in Decision Counselling--1984," by R. Vance Peavy; "Opening Doors: Keys to Career Planning," by Barrie Day and Faye Wiesenberg; "Counselling Victims of Job Loss," by Lisa Avedon; "Life Skills Training in Vocational Rehabilitation," by Eva Hagman; "Preface/New Directions in Counselling Research: 1," by R. Vance Peavy; "Canadian Research in Guidance and Counselling: Early Past and Near Future," by Jacques Perron, Conrad Lecomte, Florent Dumont, Louis-George Castonguay, and Maryse Pare; "Improving Research in Counselling Psychology: A Point of View," by Lloyd W. West; "Encouraging Young Researchers to Engage in Counselling Research," by Don Knowles; "Experiencing Unemployment: A Foundational Study," by Norman E. Amundson and William A. Borgen; "A Formative Assessment of a Thanatology Curriculum," by Barbara M. Anderson; "Context Analysis: A Systems Based Research Methodology," by Virginia van Santen; "School Settings and Functions of Counsellors: A Structural Perspective," by M. G. de Andrade; "Selected References on Qualitative Research Methodology," by R. Vance Peavy, Leslie Armstrong, and Nancy Dudley; and "Values and Attitudes for Tommorrow's Education in Quebec," by Jacques Perron and Florent Dumont. (MN)

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A MANAGEMENT APPROACH, FUNCTION AND COUNSELLING IN GUIDANCE APPLICATION IN THE FEDERAL PENITENTIARY ENVIRONMENT

Pierre Dodier, Guidance Counsellor
Correctional Service of Canada

INTRODUCTION

My principal proposition is as follows: the services model, on which the approach, function and personal and vocational counselling in the area of guidance are largely, if not exclusively, based, can survive more effectively within, and adapt more satisfactorily to, the existing socio-economic and socio-professional context if it is combined with a management approach, function and counselling in guidance, within an integrated model of intervention.

In view of the multifaceted nature and training of the guidance counsellor and the many and varied roles which he is therefore called upon to play in connection with a wide range of clienteles, it is my feeling that there are a number of fields of action in which the guidance counsellor could well combine the services approach, function and counselling with a management approach, function and counselling in guidance, and thus assert himself, in the pursuit of his effort to develop a psycho-social and socio-professional definition of his role, as, first and foremost, a manager of personality and of personal and vocational potential.

Thus stated, my proposition corresponds with the spirit and letter of the specific definition recently adopted by the profession, on the occasion of the 20th anniversary of the Professional Corporation of Guidance Counsellors of Quebec.

The revised definition of the guidance counsellor's role continues to stress his essential function as a guide. It is distinguished, however, by the fact that the guidance counsellor formally bases his identity as a specialist on the dynamic link between the individual and his work.

A Management Approach and Function Integrated with the Services Approach and Function

As I see it, the guidance counsellor is an expert. An observant psychosociologist and, at the same time, an efficient manager of personal, social and vocational data and phenomena, he sees the individual as representing an asset to himself and to society, an asset which must be developed to offer the highest possible level of profit. He deals with a client who soon learns to see himself in the same light and to act accordingly. Together, expert and asset holder then embark upon a process of management in guidance counselling.

It is the management of a project in which they are jointly engaged, for the client is a project to be developed

and made to show a profit. However this process is carried out, the essential treatment of the individual's actual achievements, that is, the treatment of his productivity and non-productivity, will play a new and decisive role in the process and make it a management process based on results.

These results, together with the variables associated with potential and aspirations, become dynamic factors for action and projection, for the promotion and development of the individual's total human assets.

In my view, there is one prime necessity in the context of guidance counselling, and I see it as absolute: a human asset must offer some profit or return to its owner or holder. It seems to me that, in this case, the asset can only benefit society as well when it is turned to a profit by its holder himself, with expert assistance.

This management process is based on results, that is, on the productivity as well as the non-productivity of the individual. Proven results, then, must lead to further proven results. There must be progress, profit, gain. These elements must be both the aim and the criteria for determining the success of the expert's action. There must be investment and a subsequent demonstration of profit.

As managers, then, we must work with our clients to determine and to predict the appropriate terms, methods, conditions, aims, levels, goals, time frames and means of control and evaluation to be applied.

Critical Reflection on Three Important Premises and One False Problem

First Premise

Perhaps not so much in theory as in practice, the phases in the guidance counselling process which are the least certain and the least operationalized are the crucial phases of insertion and achievement, followed by those of assessment and evaluation.

The elements or factors which have received the least treatment or application in concrete and dynamic terms - and yet which certainly precede these phases in the process, which are necessary preliminaries and prerequisites to them - are at the same time the variables which are the most readily available, the most comprehensible and the most easily verified, and among the most reliable bases for diagnoses and prognoses or for rational projections. Yet they are the same ones for which we have found no more meaningful description then "general information", with all the well-known headings included on this card or form, much like those of a curriculum vitae.

These provide most of the elements used in determining, to a large extent, the productivity and non-productivity of a given asset holder, elements which should in fact occupy a central position in the services model. Yet they do not.

Spontaneously, the services model devotes itself primarily to dealing with and attempting to realize the aspirations and potential of the individual. It sanctions, as it were, the value of the equation or dynamic correlation which exists between these two variables, or the value of their integration, on completion of the guidance counselling process. It devotes itself in some instances and to a certain extent to examining ways of achieving goals, aspirations and desires on the basis of potential. Even the various factors of reality are approached, in the services model, solely in terms of the limitations which they impose on the individual and his projects. Personal, social and vocational data other than those relating to aspirations and potential, together with the specific area of actual achievements and of productivity and non-productivity, are entirely or partially neglected, as is their essential significance in the individual's personal history and in connection with his problem of realizing present and future profits on his personal assets.

The services model says, in effect, to the individual: "This is the past. Now we are going to develop a project for success in the future". Or: "All right! You want to get into marketing. That might be a good choice for you. You have good potential and there are some openings available." Or more recently: "The computer will handle your guidance problem for you; here is your potential, here are the logical markets. This is what you should do."

Obviously, I am exaggerating. In evolutionary terms, however, it is no accidental paradox that the computer, considered the ultimate management tool, is being used on projects still formulated on the basis of a partial reality, that of aspirations and potential. It is precisely this approach that excludes the elements and stages which can, in fact, be effectively handled by sound management, with or without the help of the computer. The computer simply does what it is asked to do, on the basis of the data it is given. Obviously, it is not clever enough to handle the missing portion of reality, dangerously symbolizing our current omissions.

A False Problem

A familiar debate, in Quebec at least, has been raised in conversations between guidance counsellors and in papers presented in various professional journals and at certain conferences. Is the guidance counsellor a placement officer (pejorative) or a development officer (approbative)?

This is a good question, but perhaps a false problem.

In a service model, it is considered more desirable to be a development officer than a placement officer. This assumption has coloured the entire debate. Far from associating the placement officer with a management model in this debate, the approach has centred primarily on the effort to avoid acting as a placement officer. Why, then, would we even consider a management model in guidance counselling?

Whether or not it was aware of this vital debate, the State has ended it in recent years, at least in the school environment, by "placing" guidance counsellors once and for all!

As a member of this multifaceted profession, aware of the many fields of activity open to the guidance counsellor, I decided, almost three years ago, to try the penitentiary environment and its clientele. Our role here is clear-cut, although the strict services model can seem confining, particularly in connection with the educational model. Obviously, this is a common heritage from what was our first, and indeed is still our primary, field of activity.

My work involves guidance counselling, based largely on evaluation of the offender by means of tests or other methods of evaluation. When I ask myself the question which is at the heart of this debate, "Am I a placement officer or a development officer?", I must admit that I have some difficulty deciding on an answer.

Depending on the context of the debate, the school clientele requires me to be a development officer rather than a placement officer, while the penitentiary clientele requires me to be a placement officer rather than a development officer.

Wanting to develop themselves and yet resistant to change, the most positive of my penitentiary clients tell me first that their difficulties are not their own fault, but that of their socio-personal history. They add that the solution to these difficulties for which they are not really responsible would be a good job and an interesting woman in their lives, perhaps even a house and children. But there is no sense of certainty.

They are asking me, then, to be a placement officer for them, to integrate them into this society, in which, or rather, outside of which and in the eyes of which, they are marginal beings. The most positive of these clients express this request, but the desire, again, is no more certain.

The school clients I have had in the past, particularly the adults, believed in me as an agent of development and change. They would tell me: "I want to learn something. I dream of getting ahead and, if I could, even though I have a wife, children, a home, a car, a cottage, damn it, I'd like to get out of this office or this factory, find a new job, start out with a new boss, maybe move to a different city."

While I know that some of my penitentiary clients have already realized some of the dreams that sometimes elude the "free" man all his life, I am deeply convinced that the question at the heart of this debate is a false problem!

Second Premise

While the current services model requires me to be an agent of adaptation or psycho-social and socio-vocational rehabilitation to my penitentiary clientele, the same clientele has taught me, as I have become familiar with its

members, that they need me to be, essentially, a responsible manager as well. Why?!

The penitentiary clientele raises, for guidance counsellors and for society as a whole, almost all of the problems associated with NEED, in startling clarity. I would never have discovered, in contact with school clientele, that the services model required me to be a responsible manager as well, for I would never have discovered, through contact with that clientele, that it raises, for guidance counsellors and for society as a whole, almost all of the problems associated in some respect with ABUNDANCE. The adult school clientele, with so many of its members receiving welfare or unemployment insurance benefits, first made me aware of this fact.

Through contact with the penitentiary clientele, I have been able to resolve a serious dilemma and, at the same time, to dismiss a false problem, but, more important, I have discovered something of the extent of the social responsibility which the guidance counsellor bears, in terms of the human, social and financial costs that all guidance counselling clienteles involve, before, during and after the stage at which they begin to show any returns, returns which are always difficult to achieve and slow in developing.

I do not believe that the action of the guidance counsellor, governed by the services model alone, can deal effectively with this important responsibility, and I also believe that a management function is vital, that a management approach is equally necessary and that one or more integrated models of intervention, combining services counselling and management counselling, will henceforth prove essential.

The economic and social crisis from which we are only now beginning to emerge has shown us just how expensive we are. The liberality and costs of the strict services models have appalled adminstrators of public funds. Major cuts have been made, painful cuts, in both human resources and budgets, establishing that we are a luxury, while we perhaps have not yet demonstrated that we are a necessity, by demonstrating that we are psycho-socio-economically profitable.

The client, the guidance counsellor and the State are equal partners facing a social responsibility. A social project is in itself a very private affair. However, it is administered by a public service. In this triad, the role of the guidance counsellor, as a specialist in the dynamic link between the individual and his work, is of vital importance, if he will only assert himself.

It is my belief that our failure to assume our full social responsibility, by neglecting to develop and apply a praxis appropriate to this end, is, to a large extent, the cause of guidance counselling's poor socio-professional credibility, which, if not nil, is at least at its lowest point in many years. We are certainly, as a profession, in the trough of a period of necessary and important change.

In developing my principal proposition, I shall now cover the following three stages.

Using the school services model applied in this country over the past decade, I shall describe the penitentiary clientele, ages 18-23, with which I have been working. While it is certainly incomplete, it is nonetheless very clear.

Next, I shall describe the essential phases of an intervention model which, in my opinion, combines the services aproach, function and counselling with a management approach, function and counselling in the area of guidance. I call this the management model in guidance counselling.

Finally, in the third stage, I shall cover the first phase of the process advocated by this model, with particular emphasis on one specific point: the variables associated with productivity and non-productivity in some of my penitentiary clients, together with the variables associated with their aspirations and potential, both types of variables being presented in relation to the guidance decison.

Portrait of the Penitentiary Clientele Through the School Services Model in Guidance Counselling

The Sainte-Anne-des-Plaines Regional Reception Centre, a maximum-security federal institution, is responsible for the evaluation and subsequent placement of offenders throughout the network of ten federal penitentaries in the Quebec region. The institution is operated by a staff of approximately three hundred employees in various capacities.

Together with teams of doctors and nurses, psychologists, case workers, residential unit officers, religious workers and others, the guidance counselling team is assigned to this essential function of the Centre. Because he is aware of the various factors affecting the inmate's work and study plans for the period of his stay and sentence, the guidance counsellor participates, on completion of the three or four weeks which the offender spends at the Centre, in the decision regarding the inmate's transfer to the institution best suited to him in all respects.

The guidance counsellor's participation in the transfer decision is based on the following preparation. The team of six guidance counsellors, three aptitude testers, the psychotechnician, the secretary and the chief of the Education, Training and Employment Division will have collected most of the relevant data, through the reception and educational and vocational information services, the administration of psychometric tests and the exploration of vocational aptitudes for various trades, in the form of actual laboratory projects.

The file thus compiled is submitted to the guidance counsellor, who, usually through an interview with the inmate, develops plans for his stay in terms of work or study.

The following data come from these various sources and have been collected from a sample of 178 closed files on inmates between the ages of 18 and 23, my clients in 1982 and 1983.

General Information

It is these data which could be, but are not, systematically used; in other words, they should be applied through some systematic, statistical or even computerized system of continually updating the mean and differential portrait or profile of the offender.

My clients have an average age of 21.10 years. 69% are bachelors, 2% are married, 1% are divorced and 30% are involved in common-law relationships. At this age, then, very few have formed stable relationships. Most of them left home relatively early, when they had a home. They come from families with an averge of 4.94 children, a very high number given the current socio-economic context. 3% have been orphans since birth and 4% have been adopted.

31% had parents who separated 9.98 years ago, when my clients were 11.12 years old. In addition, 20% had lost their fathers or mothers by 1983. Their fathers died when my clients were 12.6 years old and their mothers when they were 13.5. 13% have lost their fathers and 7% their mothers. 3% of the surviving parents have remarried.

Their sentences average 3.66 years, the great majority being for robbery. 70% of them have spent time in provincial prisons, an average of 9.02 months. 33% have spent time in juvenile homes or detention centres.

They had been available for work, on the basis of the legal working age (16), for 5.12 years when I met them, but on the basis of school-leaving, for 5.16 years. Approximately .04% of them thus left school before the age of 16. 7% have never worked. The rest reported 2.62 jobs, lasting an average of 4.07 months for each job and 11.52 months for each individual. Only 13% have never been unemployed and 87% had been jobless for 2.12 years. 57% stated that they were not receiving unemployment insurance benefits. The others reported that they had collected benefits for only 8.32 months. 57% had received welfare payments of 8.43 months.

In terms of health, 10% have suffered from various illnesses at some time in their lives or were still suffering on arrival at the Centre. These illnesses or deficiencies range from myopia to meningitis, and include partial paralysis, mononucleosis, sinusitis, bladder infections, eczema, asthma, skull fractures and concussions, stomach ulcers, respiratory problems, diabetes, chronic bronchitis, mental disorders, injuries from firearms, knives or physical violence, etc. 19% have been involved in accidents, usually involving automobiles or motorcycles. 3% are alcoholics and 30% are on the way to becoming alcoholics, as a result of heavy, regular consumption. 52% take drugs, ranging from

chronic users to serious or severe cases. Some report using drugs continuously for 5 to 9 years, the habit often being associated with the robberies or the original motive for them. Almost 100% are smokers.

Actual Schooling, Equivalent Schooling and Potential Schooling

We do not check the actual level of schooling achieved by our clients. In principle, the placement institution requisitions the final certificate of studies obtained. Actual schooling, then, for us in reception, evaluation and placement is the level declared by the inmate.

My clients have a mean schooling level of 9.224 years, with a standard deviation of 1.257. This level corresponds to Secondary 3 and inmates thus report mean schooling levels ranging from Secondary 2 to Secondary 4, given the size of the standard deviation.

The Ligondé schooling equivalence test is administered by the psychotechnician. Their mean equivalent schooling is 8.366, with a standard deviation of 1.068. This corresponds to Secondary 2, and average inmates thus have equivalent schooling ranging from Secondary 1 to Secondary 3. This level must be considered good, in view of the fact that my clients have been on the labour market, on the basis of school-leaving, for an average of 5.05 years, with a standard deviation of 2 years. All, in fact, left school at least 3 years ago and nearly 50%, 7 years ago.

Finally, a French translation and adaptation of the American School Cooperative Aptitude Test, dating from the 1950s, is administered. This test provides three scores: an aptitude score in French or verbal ability, an aptitude score in arithmetic or numerical ability and an overall aptitude score based on these two scores. The level of difficulty of the 3 forms of the test varies with the declared level of schooling. The overall aptitude score, which is considered a more or less formal assessment of scholastic aptitude, is expressed as an equivalent schooling level for the actual declared schooling.

In contrast to the Ligondé, which establishes a schooling equivalence level on the basis of the level of academic knowledge retained, and thus constitutes an indirect measurement of learning potential, the SCAT establishes the level of schooling corresponding to the level of the potential required to achieve it, by measuring this potential.

The Ligondé says: the academic knowledge retained by subject So-and-So is the same as that retained by 10th-grade students, and therefore So-and-So's actual schooling is equivalent to 10th grade. The SCAT, on the other hand says: So-and-so has a potential in verbal aptitude and in numerical aptitude, and people with this potential normally have grade 4 or grade 10 or grade 8 schooling.

The Ligondé schooling equivalence is thus an indication of a level of achievement and indirectly a measurement of

learning potential, while the SCAT schooling equivalence is an indication of learning potential and indirectly a measurement of achievement. This distinction is very important for the interpretation of results. For convenience in my work, I use the term declared schooling for actual schooling, equivalent schooling for the Ligondé and, paradoxically, potential schooling or scholastic aptitude for the SCAT.

My clients have a mean potential schooling or scholastic aptitude of 7.224 years, with a standard deviation of 2.926. This corresponds, in fact, to Secondary 1, and my clients have a mean potential schooling or scholastic aptitude ranging from grade 4 elementary to grade 10 secondary or Secondary 4.

This analysis enables us to conclude with some degree of plausibility that, at the time of evaluation, my clients have a mean declared schooling of Secondary 3, an equivalent schooling of Secondary 2 and a potential schooling or scholastic aptitude of Secondary 1. The wholly comparable homogeneity of the data on the first two types of schooling is, quite reasonably, three times lower in the case of potential schooling or scholastic aptitude.

Psychometric data

The Beta test is still used in this setting for three reasons: it is invariably more economical than the BGTA, which was used by the Division for several years, as was the ICIP; it is one of the rare tests to offer penitentiary norms, although they are American; non-verbal and relatively free of cultural input, it is suitable even for our relatively high number of illiterates.

Dating from the First World War and revised on a number of occasions since that time, primarily as regards the norms, the Beta represents a measurement of dubious validity and sometimes variable fidelity. The results obtained confirm this, showing a mean intellectual quotient of 103.11, with a standard deviation of 9.9. Close examination of a number of cases, with parallel administration of the Barbeau-Pinard, indicates to me that the IQ figures should be reduced in almost every case by 5 to 10 units, and sometimes more. The Beta, with its six subtests, also provides an appropriate vocational profile, which can be compared with the results obtained through professional exploration of the various trades.

Aptitude Testing by Laboratory Exploration of Trades

We use the complete equipment produced by Singer Graflex of Rochester, New York. It corresponds to the characteristics of our clientele, whose interests lie much more in manual labour and the various industrial and commercial trades than in academic study. Each inmate is permitted to explore three different trades in order of preference.

The following figures refer to the percentage of candidates selecting each trade as their first choice. Carpentry (17%) and mechanics (16%) are by far the most popular. Electricity is next with 13%. Next come drafting (9%), office maintenance (7%), cooking (7%), metalwork (7%), welding (6%), machining (6%), hairdressing (4%), accounting (3%), plumbing (3%), and masonry (2%). I have not had the time to calculate statistical data on the results. I can say, however, that the great majority of my clients are well suited to industrial and commercial trades. Some have inadequately developed abilities as craftsmen or even, in some cases, as artists. As Yochelson and Samenow have already established, their intelligence in most cases is more concrete than abstract and their non-verbal potential is markedly superior to their verbal potential on such intelligence tests as the Wechsler-Bellevue or the Barbeau-Pinard.

In this connection, I have not yet had time to verify the following hypothesis, with a test such as Lamontage's, to determine learning styles: many of my clients may have turned to delinquency in part because they experienced failure rather than success in school from an early age, as a result of teaching directed towards abstract intelligence alone at the elementary level.

Personality Measurement

As regards personality, Gaston Gauthier's Personal Tendencies Test is very useful to us, although its norms too may require some revision. The mean profile for my clients falls between the 70th and the 30th percentiles - the average zone, in my opinion - with the exception of two tendencies which the questionnaire rates as low. These are the desire for achievement primarily through work or ambition, and leadership or dominance.

We may note the high correlation here between the low desire for achievement and the data relating to the relatively poor work record described above. The leadership or dominance variable, which is comparable to self-confidence in relationships with others or to the tendency to self-assertion in social settings, is relatively closely related to the desire for achievement. Absence of significant goals in life, on the basis of personal inadequacies in such areas as self-confidence or sense of identity, is, in my experience, the corollary of these two data.

It may come as a surprise to find that my client's sense of organization, perseverance, ability to adapt to new situations, healthy acceptance of authority, tendency to help others, concern for others, self-esteem and self-control, along with objectivity, are rated as high as the 70th percentile.

Does this mean that my clients' offences are the result more of mesologic, family, cultural and socio-economic factors than of a definitely atypical, pathological or

clearly marginal personality? Are my robbers essentially just "chronically lazy"?

Contemporary theories, including, for example, that expressed by Yochelson and Samenow, maintain that delinquency is a responsible choice on which the delinquent must be confronted. However, if his motivation is so inadequate and he lacks any significant direction in his life or any desire to assert himself, how can he divest himself of this heavy accumulation of mesologic influences cited above? You are what you eat. It is a world of irreversible habit and of subjection to such habit by an E (environment) which is overpowering in relation to the weaknesses it has imposed on I (the individual).

The Gauthier Personal Tendencies Test, which is an adaptation and translation into French of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, provides a consistency score on the answers to the 15 scales of which it is composed. My original sample, which included 120 subjects for this test, was reduced by 15% when 18 profiles proved unreliable.

On the other 102 which were retained and showed generally consistent scores, all the scales, taken individually, reflect some inconsistency in the responses, with the percentage of respondents affected varying from 12% to 41%. Each profile will threfore be interpreted on its merits. To complete the portrait of the offender's personal tendencies as reflected by the Gauthier test, I should mention the scales most affected by inconsistency in the responses: 37% of the respondents show inconsistent responses on the scale relating to Deference or healthy acceptance of authority; 30% on the Extrospection or empathy scale; 33% on the Sociability scale, or tendency to affiliate with a group; 41% on the Aggression scale, or tolerance of frustration and emotional control.

Without forcing the Gauthier test to say something it does not mean, these observations with respect to the Deference, Affiliation, Aggression and Extrospection scales, combined with the inadequacies diagnosed by this test on the scales relating to Desire for achievement or healthy ambition and Dominance or desire for self-assertion and personal confidence, give a more complete portrait of the delinquent personality.

Since we are dealing here with a mean profile for 102 subjects, we might reasonably expect the portrait to reveal similarities between some subjects in the sample; yet, with raw scores on each scale ranging from 1 to 28, we obtain mean raw scores ranging from 9.6 to 17.8 and standard deviations ranging from 3.5 to 5.4. At the same time, we note the strong homogeneity of the distributions, reflecting the homogeneity of the type of population.

Does the inconsistency on all the scales, affecting 12% to 41% of the respondents, perhaps indicate that the offender does not have enough education to answer the questionnaire, that he does not understand himself or that he does not choose to make himself understood? I myself am

inclined to believe that the inconsistency and consistency alike are part of his make-up and that he is projecting a relatively accurate image of himself.

Furthermore, the definite inadequacies diagnosed by the test on the scales relating to Desire for achievement or healthy Ambition and Dominance or desire for self-assertion and personal confidence or leadership are significant indications confirming to me that guidance counselling in the penitentiary environment is not merely useful, but necessary and even essential. The diagnosis, in fact, shows poor motivation for work, an absence of significant personal and vocational goals, poor work values, elements associated with low self-determination, a low desire for self-assertion and low self-direction. The problem is one of personal and vocational motivation, of the link between the individual and his work. This overall portrait may well reflect a problem of inadequate or unprofitable management of a human, social and financial asset.

Time for Reflection

Reasons associated with our omissions in certain crucial phases of the guidance counselling process, reasons associated with the inadequate exploitation of our clients' actual achievements, and other reasons associated with the social responsibility of the counsellor and with the socio-professional credibility of guidance counselling have been advanced to encourage us, the champions of aspirations and potential in a services model, to become as well the champions of the variables associated with productivity and non-productivity in a management model.

A fundamental principle is added, however, to this rationale each time we are confronted with the portrait of one of our specific clienteles, particularly and most importantly when this portrait is quantified, when the data have been grouped and symbolized and none are overlooked.

In the case of my penitentiary clientele, whose lives have been disrupted at several stages and in a number of decisive events, the principle of continuity in being and experience, as a dynamic dimension of change, becomes even more essential as the driving force behind our reflections and our guidance efforts. The same is true in the case of our so-called special clienteles.

We champions of aspirations and potential in a services model, champions of the variables associated with productivity and non-productivity in a management model, become efficient managers of the client's actual needs in an integrated model of intervention, when we fully respect this principle of continuity.

As a result of what is certainly an unwanted arrest, my future penitentiary client is suddenly parachuted into a situation he failed to anticipate in his life or in his immediate or future plans, if indeed he has any. He is parachuted into an experience of rupture, just as he would

PERSONAL TENDENCIES TEST
Gaston Gauthier, D Ps

FEDERAL OFFENDERS - 18-23 N = 102 1982-83

PERSONAL TENDENCIES PROFILE -------: N° 0112

	ACTIVITY					ALTRUISM					EGOCENTRICITY				
PC GROUP	70	14	65	78	16	70	74	50	50	50	38	30	58	30	42
PC 112	58 Order	2 Achievement	16 Perseverance	88 Change	70 Dominance	20 Deference	58 Benevolence	50 Extrospection	50 Sociability	42 Heterosexuality	58 Individualism	26 Inferiority	91 Dependence	70 Aggression	70 Exhibitionism
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
70			70					70					70		
65	--	--	65	--	--	--	--	65	--	---	---	---	65	---	---
60			60					60					60		
55	--	--	55	--	--	--	--	55	--	---	---	---	55	---	---
50			50					50					50		
45	--	--	45	--	--	--	--	45	--	---	---	---	45	---	---
40			40					40					40		
35	--	--	35	--	--	--	--	35	--	---	---	---	35	---	---
30			30					30					30		
T	55	39	54	55	40	55	57	50	50	50	47	45	52	45	48
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15

Percentile	Stanine
	9
	8
98	7
93	
84	6
75	
70	
60	5
50	
40	
30	4
25	
16	
	3
7	
2	2
1	
	1

INTERPRETATION OF THE PROFILE

A subject wishing to interpret the profile should use the percentiles scale rather than the T-scores.

The percentiles on the attached table indicate, for each of your tendencies, your ranking in relation to a group of one hundred people.

If your score for tendencies relating to Activity and Altruism is located above the 70th percentile, it means that this tendency is high. If your score is between the 30th and 70th percentile, you are average. Below the 30th percentile, the tendency is low and should be improved.

For tendencies relating to Egocentricity, the higher the score, above the 70th percentile, the less acceptable the behavior in this respect. The lower the percentile, the more desirable the behaviour.

*Enter subject's T-scores here.

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be by an accident at work, a psychiatric breakdown or a physical handicap. In my client's case this experience of rupture is that of prison as a total experience.

Here, often to his great astonishment, he is greeted by a team of professionals, to mention only the guidance counselling team, with the services and equipment described above. Job and training opportunities are offered to him, almost as many and varied as in the school system or on the labour market, sectors into which the majority of my clients have ventured, often at no great profit to themselves and often too at great human, social and financial cost.

Within the space of two or three weeks at the Centre, through a brief guidance process based on the school services model, they will complete the planning for another period of their existence - two years, five years, ten years, less frequently fifteen, twenty or twenty-five years. Naturally, there wil be some changes in these plans. Such changes are certainly both inevitable and desirable.

One question arises, however, in connection with this experience of rupture and this guidance planning. First, how many of my clients, under these circumstances, can make plans on the basis of anything other than contextual or accidental motivation, with all the facets which emerge in the interviews, from objective and realistic choice to conformity, from adaptation to utilitarianism, from an exploitive situational attitude to the perpetuation of habitual parasitism? Secondly, for how many of my clients will the principle of continuity be respected in a services model, unless it is integrated with a large model involving efficient management of the variables associated with productivity and non-productivity, in addition to actual needs?

This, then, is the model, presented solely in the desire to help the profession achieve greater effectiveness, and perhaps even greater profit, a model I call the management model in guidance counselling, since we already know that guidance is a service.

A Management Model in Guidance Counselling

This model consists of three phases in the management guidance counselling process.

The Evaluation or Assessment Phase

The expert in human assets management produces an evaluation, in as much detail as possible, a balance sheet of assets and liabilities, reflecting every aspect of the client's life. In doing so, he uses all the known methods of collecting personal, economic, social and vocational data, from interviews and surveys to standardized instruments of measurement. This operation, performed on my clients, produced the portrait I have already described to you.

At my current stage in practice and experimentation with this model, which is that of exploration, I have chosen to use the mean profile with standard deviations, for all data on which these figures can be obtained. This mean profile serves as a basis for certain decisions or estimates or for certain risks, or, at the very least, as a point of reference in discussions with the client.

Obviously, more sophisticated processing models will be required, particularly as regards the respective weights to be assigned to the variables and elements considered, in order to reflect their relative importance and matrix or in groupings of significant levels. I have not yet achieved this degree of sophistication and precision.

For those data which I do have concerning my clients, I have assigned priority, in accordance with the spirit of my original criticism and my current efforts to develop a management approach to guidance, to those variables relating to the actual achievements of my clients, that is, to those data relating to their productivity and non-productivity.

It is this aspect in particular which, for the moment, reflects my concern with management and which illustrates, in part, the possible application of this "general information" for purposes other than that of simply pigeon-holing the client and preparing a narrative report. One of these aims is to manage the client's actual needs.

The other focus in this assessment is represented by the variables relating to aspirations and potential.

In this first phase of the process, the manager's essential role has been to identify and to quantify the various components of these two foci, and the relationships which exist between them.

This is how I approached the problem with my penitentiary clients.

For each one, I determined how long he has been available for work on the basis of legal working age, by subtracting the legal working age, which is 16, from his age on reception (A_{WA}). Because of its status as law, the legal working age is also important in determining the annual indices of productivity and non-productivity.

I also determined the client's availability for work on the basis of school-leaving, by subtracting the year in which he left school from the year of reception at the Centre (A_{SL}).

All periods of school attendance beyond the legal working age are taken into account in productivity P. All periods of time below the legal working age not devoted to work or to school attendance are taken into account in non-productivity NP.

Time employed T_E, minus time unemployed T_U, plus time of school attendance beyond the legal working age (A_{WA}-A_{SL}), provide a rough measurement of productivitiy P. The latter is calculated, however, as an annual index, while availability on the basis of the legal working age

A_{WA} becomes the divisor. The complete formula is as follows:

$$P = \frac{T_E - T_U + (A_{SL} - A_{WA})}{A_{WA}}$$

I then determined the index of non-productivity, first calculating the approximate non-productivity NP as follows: time receiving welfare TR_W, plus time receiving unemployment insurance TR_{UI}, plus time spent in provincial prison TPP, plus time of non-attendance at school A_{WA}-A_{SL} below the legal working age, roughly equal non-productivity NP. The mean index NP is established in relation to availability on the basis of the legal working age A_{WA}, used as the divisor. The complete formula is as follows:

$$NP = \frac{TR_W + TR_{UI} + TPP + (A_{WA} - A_{SL})}{A_{WA}}$$

Finally, the mean index of effective productivity P_{EFF} is obtained by determining the difference between the annual indices P and NP.

The individual data of this nature are presented to the client by comparing them to the mean and standard deviation of the datum for the population and by using these two reference points to give general overall significance to the individual data. This significance will serve as a basis for discussion, either in assessing the past or the present, or in making plans for the future.

This is how I quantified the variables relating to productivity and non-productivity. For the present, the figures offer a somewhat approximate and entirely temporal reflection of the development of the human assets which my penitentiary clients represent.

We must have far more numerous, precise and complex data if we are to establish the true returns on human assets, in terms of human, social and financial costs and profits.

Not only must the relative value of the components of productivity and non-productivity be assigned precise weightings, but these weightings must be made even more precise in monetary terms.

I could achieve a preliminary degree of sophistication if I knew that the mean time employed T_E, estimated at 2.63 years for all my clients, is equivalent in monetary terms to $2 million, while time unemployed T_U and receiving unemployment insurance TR_{UI} has cost $9 million. This is why the computer may prove a valuable management tool with a model of this nature.

What then of the variables associated with potential and aspirations? How is the guidance counsellor to handle them? Essentially, by referring here again, to means and

standard deviations in his work with individual data in order to assign them some significance, whether favourable or unfavourable, on the basis of these two principal points of reference - a significance which will serve, as in the case of actual achievements, as a basis for discussion, either in assessing the past or the present, or in making plans for the future.

The following symbols have been used to permit quantification of these variables.

First of all, there are the schooling dynamics Dyn_S. Working from the three measurements obtained, declared schooling S_D, considered as actual schooling, equivalent schooling S_{EQ} and potential schooling S_P or scholastic aptitude, there are a number of ways of establishing the value of these dynamics. I have studied two.

The relationship between potential schooling S_P and equivalent schooling S_{EQ} is an index by which declared schooling S_D can be multiplied, but there is no rational basis to justify such a correlation. The simplest approach, then, is to calculate two indices, the mean and standard deviation of which we can then use in relation to the individual data.

I therefore established the index of the equivalent value of declared schooling $IEQV_{SD}$ as the first schooling dynamic Dyn_S, by calculating the relationship between equivalent schooling S_{EQ} and declared schooling S_D. In the same way, I established a second dynamic, by calculating the index of the potential value of declared schooling S_D. To do this, I determined the relationship of the first to the second and obtained the index of the potential value of declared schooling IPV_{SD}. These two indices are at least comparable and, at a later stage, may even be assigned weightings on the basis of other factors.

Next come the intellectual dynamics Dyn_I. The results of the Beta offer, first of all, the mean intelligence quotient and the standard deviation, which are useful data.

I established another index by determining the relationship of the deviation of the individual IQ from the mean IQ to the value of the standard deviation, thus producing an initial dynamic. Somewhat more refined than the standard deviation as an index, it is comparable to it. It is designated by the symbol Dyn_{II}.

Another index of intellectual dynamics can be derived from the results of the Beta test. The shape-perception subtest measures the general intelligence measured by this test as a whole almost as well as the full test. There is a high correlation, then, between the results of the two. In addition, this subtest specifically provides a relatively accurate estimate of aptitude for education in general and for pure and applied sciences in particular. It may therefore constitute, in these terms an indication of academic potential.

When a client produces a weighted score equal to or greater than the weighted score corresponding to one positive standard deviation, it can be assumed that his aptitude for education is good, particularly in the pure and applied sciences. This is a datum to be dealt with in the same manner as mean IQ and standard deviation.

Moreover, this is confirmed by the index described here. I obtain it by calculating the index obtained from the relationship of the weighted score on this subtest, minus the mean objective score, to the total weighted score. Since I have this index for both the mean and the standard deviation, I can then readily compare the individual data from the same source. This index is designated by the symbol Dyn_{I2}.

The socio-personal dynamics Dyn_{SP}, which can be established on the basis of the variables measured, for example by the Gauthier test, are expressed in various ways.

The instrument provides us immediately with two, which are distinctly lower than all the others, which remain within the average range. It is my assumption that the ambitious individual, in my population, is comparable merely to the average individual in the general population. The same comparison applies to those with a sense of affiliation, self-confidence, leadership and self-determination. I should, however, have statistically more accurate reference points for my clients.

Another way in which this instrument can be used is to consider the first five characteristics, representing total energy or total dynamics available, as dynamics useful to production or to individual contribution within the community. I therefore describe them as community integration dynamics.

The second set of five characteristics reveals all the dynamics of social integration. Finally, the third group of five characteristics covers all the dynamics of personal integration.

We are familiar, in part, with the client's exploratory interests, from the trades which he has chosen to assess his abilities. His aspirations for the period of imprisonment are revealed by the interview, as are any definite possibilities of employment on release.

On completion of this first phase, we, as experts, should have enough data to show a contrast between the variables associated with productivity and non-productivity and the others, that is, the variables associated with potential and aspirations. Only in this way can we hope to satisfy the client's actual and realistic needs and to develop a realistic, viable and profitable project.

The Promotion Phase

First of all, the expert shows his client the balance sheet or assessment, and explains it to him. Fully identified and symbolized, and in most cases quantified, the data assessed

INDICES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF GUIDANCE DECISIONS, PENITENTIARY CLIENTELES, AGES 18-23

(N=178, means, standard deviations, other)

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH PRODUCTIVITY AND NON-PRODUCTIVITY (in months)

	Q_{WA}	A_{SL}	A_{WA}-A_{SL}	T_E	T_U	TR_U	TR_W	TPP	P	NP	P_{EFF}
M	61.45	61.92	-.48	31.5	25.42	8.37	8.44	9.02	.135	.479	-.344
σ	24.18	28.38	22.22	27.48	20.01	5.71	4.8	6.92	.601	.456	.863

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH POTENTIAL AND ASPIRATIONS

	SCHOOLING DYNAMICS							INTELLECTUAL DYNAMICS			
	S_D	S_{EQ}	S_P	$IEQV_{S_D}$	IPV_{S_D}	S_{EQ}-S_D	S_P-S_D	IQ	Dyn_{I1}	WST4	Dyn_{I2}
M	9.224	8.366	7.224	0.91	0.78	-.912	-2.143	103.11	.02	10.368	.005
σ	1.257	1.068	2.93	0.85	2.33	1.286	2.74	9.9	7.03	2.48	.126

INTEGRATIONAL DYNAMICS

COMMUNITY			SOCIAL OR INTERPERSONAL			PERSONAL		
RAW SCORE	T-SCORE	PERCENTILE	RAW SCORE	T-SCORE	PERCENTILE	RAW SCORE	T-SCORE	PERCENTILE
13.42 (M) 4.52 (σ)	49	47	15.99 (M) 4.38 (σ)	52	59	12.34 (M) 4.34 (σ)	47	40

related primarily to variables associated with actual achievements, in terms of indices of productivity and non-productivity, and the other variables. Some are associated with potential: these are the indices of schooling dynamics, intellectual dynamics and socio-personal dynamics. Others are associated with aspirations: these are the interests expressed, in the case of my clients.

These two principal types of variables are contrasted and their significance should be evident to the client.

This phase is essentially one of promotion, in which the client is confronted with the facts about himself in the form of a balance sheet. It is on the basis of this balance sheet, listing his actual achievements, among other factors, that he must come to terms with his potential and his aspirations. He himself is responsible for the promotion of his own assets.

The clearer the constrast or the correlation between his actual achievements and his potential, the more the client will adjust his aspirations to fit his actual needs, including both any calculated and potentially profitable risks he is prepared to take and any certainties he may have in this connection.

The expert is there to encourage this process of promotion and to suggest various directions, thus ensuring that his client's promotion takes advantage of all the possibilities suggested by the balance sheet.

The expert will have grouped the client's actual achievements, potential, aspirations and actual needs, individually or in combination, into occupational units offering various levels of return, from minimal to acceptable and maximal.

For example, my penitentiary client will know that his two years of unemployment have cost him $20,000 in lost wages, since he was previously employed as a semi-skilled labourer in renovation work. These two years have also cost $6,000 in unemployment insurance benefits. On the other hand, the investment of one full year beyond the legal working age in training as a plumber is an important element in terms of productivity, for himself and for society, which needs his skills.

However, the fact that he failed to complete his training, while it leaves my client with some skills, represents a costly investment in every respect: the cost of the year of training for both parties, my client and the State; the human cost represented by his own time and energy and that of the training staff; and, at the same time, financial costs. We must also consider the cost of using the equipment involved.

These data should teach the client something in terms of the meaning they assume in his eyes, a meaning which relates to the way in which he is managing all the important assets with which he is dealing, his own and those of others.

This promotion also shows him how poor the returns have been on his previous investments, and how, with the assets available to him, they can produce better results in the near future.

From the expert, he will also have a precise idea of the human, social and financial costs of the occupational units which would appear to be the most profitable for him, as potential investments.

The promotion phase involves confrontation with realities rarely visualized by our clients. It represents for them an experience in responsibility for their own assets and in their own social responsibility, an experience in realism, a new and decisive awareness of the factors which lead to profits and losses for themselves and for society, factors which depend ultimately on their type or style of management. It is also a decisive experience in appropriation, in the assumption of possession and responsibility, in which the familiar techniques of role-playing, for example, may play a contributing role.

On completion of this phase, the client knows his actual needs. He knows, from having listed both his previous achievements and his abilities and plans, a number of profitable responses capable of satisfying them.

Throughout this phase, he will have learned that his investments must show returns in terms of actual achievements, and he will no longer be prepared to accept excessive deficits in the future. He will have learned that results lead and must lead to further results.

The Investment Phase

Briefly, this phase includes those operations designed to ensure that the proposed investments are profitable and successful. It also represents an experience in management.

The expert and his client will use the resources offered by the environment to effect a profitable investment.

If an exploratory training period is required, they will locate a suitable setting and a supervisor, who will also produce an assessment of the trainee's work.

Investment costs will be estimated, including those which can be self-financing and those which can be covered by allowances, bursaries or personal loans.

If the client hopes to operate a tow truck on his release, a market and feasibility study will immediately be undertaken to provide a basis for his eventual decision.

The practicality, too, of the occupational unit finally selected by the client will thus be compared with the resources and limitations of the environment.

The client will have learned a great deal during this phase: how to manage his projects to maximum advantage within his environment and through recourse to all the resources and opportunities which it offers.

The expert and his client come into contact whenever a difficulty is encountered in this phase. The expert is thus

familiar with the setting, time and conditions surrounding his client's educational or vocational insertion.

A follow-up operation is initiated and supported by an assessment in each of the first two years following actual investment in a given route. These two years are part of the process in this third phase.

This process is thus a cycle effected by the two partners and by others: assessment, promotion, investment, assessment, promotion, investment, assessment, etc.

During this investment phase, my penitentiary client is transferred to the institution where he will have the opportunity to put his guidance project into profitable operation. We call this insertion. I must make use of the resources of the environment to avoid losing contact with him, or else refer his file to an official within that environment. The same situation arises at the reinsertion stage, which begins with the halfway house as the point of entry and contact.

I need hardly point out that the cycle of this same process, which begins with reception and continues in the prison environment, must assume its full significance and demonstrate its full value at the halfway house stage, with the client's entry into or return to the labour market.

The client's search for a job, his insertion into it and the follow-up for two consecutive years are thus part of the investment phase. Both client and expert then cross their fingers that no further offence occurs, for recidivism is indisputable evidence that someone somewhere has either failed to perform his task of management satisfactorily or has not yet learned to do so properly.

Because this process has all the characteristics of a spiral or endless screw, it recognizes that sound management is not necessarily learned in a single training period. When this happens, we do not begin again; we simply continue.

Application of the Evaluation Phase in the Penitentiary Environment

First of all, I have prepared a table simply to illustrate the form assumed in quantification of the variables affected by this management model. The indices calculated for five different cases offer some idea, through their variety, of the value of such an assessment, for individuals as well as groups.

A second table, entitled "Indices for management counselling in the penitentiary environment", constitutes the working instrument from which I produce an individual assessment, immediately comparable to that effected for the group to which the individual belongs. This serves as my grid for management of the individual data.

Here, we shall use it to review a case originally handled on the basis of the school services model. Note the manner and extent to which the inclusion and handling of actual achievements affect the portrait of the client, his guidance problem and the decisions ultimately reached.

N° 0112 has a declared schooling S_D of 10th grade or Secondary 3, short vocational course, in which he learned lumber sorting, among other trades. His equivalent school S_{EQ} is only 8th grade level, but in this respect he is comparable to the mean for the sample. This equivalent schooling of 8th grade gives him an index of .80 for declared schooling, which places him at .13 times the standard deviation, a slight and non-significant deficiency in relation to the sample.

His potential schooling S_p, or scholastic aptitude, is 7th grade level. Here again, it is comparable to the mean for the sample, and gives him an index of .70 for declared schooling. This index in only .03 times the standard deviation, for a very slight deficiency.

The respective differences of -2 between equivalent schooling S_{EQ} and declared schooling S_D, and of -3 between potential schooling S_p and declared schooling S_D, are no more serious in their implications than the preceding indices. N° 0112 is, in most respects, very close to the sample and to the mean indices shown on the grid in terms of schooling dynamics.

In terms of intellectual dynamics, he deviates more markedly from the sample mean. For example, his intelligence quotient is .20 times the positive standard deviation, or very close to the bright level, by Beta standards. The shape-perception subtest serves, in this case, as a measurement of general intelligence and as a specific measurement of general academic aptitude and of aptitude for science and math in particular. His score is 1.46 times the positive standard deviation.

As regards aspirations, N° 0112 expresses a desire to study business practice. His prerequisites are somewhat weak but marginally acceptable. Since he shows a clerical profile on the Beta subtest, there is no real reason that he should not try his luck.

On the Gauthier test, moreover, he shows high dominance and a strong sense of self-assertion in his relations with others. With this level of leadership and self-confidence, he may well be a business man in the making.

However, he is not particulary ambitious, is easily influenced and shows dependency. These factors may reflect an identity problem. While he is generally benevolent, he is still extremely impulsive and sensitive to frustration. Finally, he has a strong need to attract attention and even to monopolize others, given the intensity of his impulsiveness and the strength of his leadership. Lastly, he is very unstable and changeable.

Because I did not deal with these personality data as systematically as I now do and because I was accustomed to offender profiles, I may have failed to assign these characteristics there full weight as possible limitations. Moreover, the services model favours the individual with the intellectual and schooling dynamics to handle business training, an adequate vocational profile and explicit aspirations.

INDICES FOR MANAGEMENT COUNSELLING IN THE PENITENTIARY ENVIRONMENT

I- VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH POTENTIAL AND ASPIRATIONS

1.- SCHOOLING OR ACADEMIC DYNAMICS (means M and standard deviations σ).

Indices, ages 18-23		0153	0261	0352	0624	0700
Declared shcooling S_D	9.224 1.257	9 reg	9 reg	11	10	SVC2 (9)
Equivalent schooling S_{EQ}	8.366 1.068	9	9	10	8	8
Potential schooling S_P	7.224 2.93	8	12	12	11	4
Index of equivalent value of declared schooling $IEQV_{SD}$	0.91 0.85	1.00	1.00	0.91	0.80	0.99
Index of potential value of declared schooling IPV_{SD}	0.78 2.33	0.89	1.33	1.09	1.10	0.44
$S_{EQ} - S_D$:	-0.912 1.286	0	0	-1.00	-2.00	-1.00
$S_P - S_D$:	-2.143 2.74	-1.00	-3	-1.00	-1.00	-5.00

INDICES FOR MANAGEMENT COUNSELLING
IN THE PENITENTIARY ENVIRONMENT

I- VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH POTENTIAL AND ASPIRATIONS

2.- INTELLECTUAL DYNAMICS

	Indices, ages 18-23	0153	0261	0352	0624	0700
Intelligence quotient IQ	103.11 9.9	112	106	107	111	99
Correlation of individual deviation on IQ to standard deviation Dyn_{I1}	0.02 7.03	0.90	0.61	0.71	0.80	-0.415
Measurement of academic intelligence by subtest 4 WST4	10.368 2.48	10	14	11	14	9
Value of WST4 in relation to entire test Dyn_{I2}	0.005 0.126	-.0054	.059	.015	.059	-.020

3.- PYSCHOLOGICAL INTEGRATION DYNAMICS (raw scores RS, T-scores T, percentiles PC).

	RS	T	PC	0153	0261	0352	0624	0700
Community integration	13.42 4.62	49	47	40	58	27	22	60
Social or interpersonal integration	15.99 4.38	52	58	80	58	71	74	31
Personal integration	12.34 4.34	47	40	36	38	59	59	53
Achievement	14.36 4.1	39	14	4	38	4	4	11
Self-assertion in relations with others	9.31 3.5	40	16	2	1	42	1	62

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INDICES FOR MANAGEMENT COUNSELLING
IN THE PENITENTIARY ENVIRONMENT

II- VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENTS OR PRODUCTIVITY AND NON-PRODUCTIVITY DYNAMICS

	Indices, ages 18-23 (in months)	0153	0261	0352	0624	0700
Availability for work on the basis of legal working age A_{WA}	61.45 24.18	48	60	96	60	36
Declared schooling S_D	9.224 1.257	9	9	11 mech		SVC3 (10)
Availability for work on the basis of school-leaving A_{SL}	61.92 28.38	72	84	84	36	60
$A_{WA} - A_{SL}$	-0.48 22.22	-2	-24	+12	+24	-24
Time employed T_E	31.5 27.48	0	72	078	15	20
Time unemployed T_U	25.42 20.01	0	24	18	12	8
Time receiving unemployment insurance benefits TR_{UI}	8.37 5.71	0	0	18	7	0
Time receiving welfare TR_W	8.44 4.8	0	24	0	1	4
Time in provincial prison TPP	9.02 6.92	16	5	2	2	8
Index of productivity P	0.135	0	0.80	0.75	0.45	0.33
Index of non-productivity NP	0.479 0.456	.83	1.28	0.40	0.37	1.22
Index of effective productivity P_{EFF}	-0.344	-.83	-.48	+.355	+0.08	-.892

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The management model, however, and the profit approach on which it is based, assign more importance to the observed deficiencies.

Looking at his actual achievements, we find a clear contrast with his potential. The personality factors take on added significance in view of the high correlation between the clients, lack of achievements and his index of effective productivity, which falls at 1.16 times the negative standard deviation. Time receiving unemployment insurance and time receiving welfare, at 5.89 times and 2.02 times the negative standard deviation respectively, offer a fairly definitive and generally unfavourable view of the client's productivity. His approximate productivity index, moreover, is negative and his approximate non-productivity index is also high, at almost a full standard deviation.

When we apply the principle of continuity, based on consideration of actual achievements and of the variable force of the contrast between these achievements and the variables associated with potential and aspirations, to the management of this case, it becomes astonishing that the client should hope to leap the gap which exists between a job as a lumber sorter in a sawmill and business training.

With his low effective productivity, his low ambition and his susceptibility to influence, in short, with his relatively parasitic life style, there is no guarantee that potential alone can ensure the success of such a leap.

We have enough data at this stage to ask the client to handle his own promotion on the basis of these data and to stress the need for a review of his actual needs and the realism of his aspirations. Continuity in his development experience and the costs involved maybe used to guide him in this operation.

It is certainly along these lines that I would work with him today.

CONCLUSION

Through the use of management models like this one, we in the area of penitentiary guidance should be in a position not only to offer our clientele a clear portrait of itself, but to formulate diagnoses and prognoses as part of our function of assessment.

These diagnoses and prognoses will be used as the basis for the same decisions, but the process will be much more logical. We must go farther: they must deal with the possibilities of rehabilitation through general training, vocational training and skilled and unskilled labour. To live is also to produce, and to produce, for my clients, is thus to begin rehabilitating themselves, by developing their human assets to the fullest.

A management approach should also help us, by extension, to pinpoint the placement institution most appropriate to the actual needs of our clients, for the purpose of their gradual rehabilitation.

A management grid for first offenders can thus be an effective instrument. A second management grid, developed for second offenders or repeaters who have already undergone the first, becomes an even more effective complementary instrument for dealing with both types of prisoners. Through it, the actual achievements of our clients assume both clear and reliable significance.

Finally, it is evident that computerization is essential in this day and age, if we hope to do any systematic processing of large quantities of important data.

Management-oriented computerization in the area of guidance counselling is entirely feasible for the penitentiary environment, when is it used within a structured model based on collective data.

We can assume that it will also be extremely profitable on the human, social and financial levels if it respects the continuity of experience in the individual, the most powerful dynamic in his development and change.

There are no drawbacks, in my opinion, to the use of a management model to move the human assets of individuals, and hence of societies, from "economist"-type investment to profitability and even greater value.

The rehabilitation of my penitentiary clients becomes a reasonable objective only if we approach it reasonably, that is, as a phenomenon and a process of development and growth, extending over five, ten, fifteen, twenty years, or even longer.

While it demands reflection and creative imagination, rehabilitation cannot indulge in idle dreams. This is why I am both dedicated to and comfortable in working towards this goal through a management approach, function and counselling in guidance.

Nor are such an approach, function and handling foreign to today's concerns. Each of us has emphasized this point in his own way.

On November 8, 1983, a memorandum was presented to the Quebec government's priorities committee urging that adult education be based on "the wager of economic development"*. As a result, the emphasis is to be placed on vocational training programs and "on a policy of vocational training in which the social and the cultural are indissociable from the economic"*.

The urgent need for guidance to diversify its areas of activity and to separate itself from the educational field is evident in the following policy statement: "A total policy of adult education cannot be based on the school system alone. In this connection, it must recognize both the plurality of settings and of educational resources, and the specificity of administrative responsibilities in the various ministries and agencies involved"*.

Nor is it by chance that a national policy for the reduction of illiteracy was launched in 1983 and that the federal penitentiary environment stresses vocational training and employment.

In October 1983, a Gallup poll commissioned by the Solicitor General on the training needs of the penitentiary clientele revealed the following: 53% of the respondents want to learn various trades in order to find jobs in the community; 37% want to learn to read and write; 7% want to complete high school; 1.3% want to take university-level training.

While these positions define the larger management model within which a management model in the area of guidance will always find justification, the responses of the penitentiary clients confirm that these supposedly marginal citizens are also part of our societies and of the community, since these are the community's needs they are describing, with as much justification as our heads of State. We can only hope that they will be able to assume the responsibility with comparable determination.

PERSONAL TENDENCIES

Definitions

A. Activity (way of acting, school or work)

( ) 1. ORDER:
Tendency to plan and organize before beginning a task. Anticipation of all details, use of a systematic approach. Indication of working methods.

( ) 2. ACHIEVEMENT:
Desire for achievement through a task, occupation, way of life. Desire to do better than others. Implies a degree of healthy ambition and a desire to assert oneself in a task requiring some degree of effort.

( ) 3. PERSEVERANCE:
Ability to stay with a job until it is done; adherence to a task. Implies a minimum level of energy and resistance to fatigue. Permits progess from a previous condition.

( ) 4. CHANGE:
Ability to adapt to new situations. If very pronounced, may be a sign of instability.

( ) 5. DOMINANCE:
Desire to lead or organize a group. Tendency to command or to be accepted as leader.

B. Altruism (tendencies with respect to others)

( ) 6. DEFERENCE:
Healthy acceptance of the requirements of those in authority. Ability to take orders and carry them out.

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* Translation.

( ) 7. BENEVOLENCE:
Tendency to help others with generosity and sympathy. Attitude of benevolence towards others. Desire to do good.

( ) 8. EXTROSPECTION:
Tendency to observe the behaviour of others. Tendency to analyse and understand the actions of others. Anticipation of others' reactions.

( ) 9. SOCIABILITY:
Willingness to participate in social activities, to affiliate with a group. Desire to make friends.

( ) 10. HETEROSEXUALITY:
Attitude towards individuals of the opposite sex.

C. Egocentricity (tendency to some self-centredness)

( ) 11. INDIVIDUALISM:
Tendency to do as one pleases, without concern of others. This characteristic reflects independence rather than autonomy.

( ) 12. INFERIORITY:
Tendency to feel inferior to others and to withdraw into oneself. Guilt feelings.

( ) 13. DEPENDENCE:
Need to rely on other for sympathy and support before acting. Need for assistance. Tendency to be dependent on someone else.

( ) 14. AGGRESSION:
Tendency to be impulsive, to lack control in certain situations. Tendency to criticize, to show antipathy, to lack tact.

( ) 15. EXHIBITIONISM:
Desire to be the centre of attention. Need to be seen. Desire to have an audience.

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A DESCRIPTION OF THE ALTERNATE SCHOOL IN PRINCE ALBERT, SASKATCHEWAN

Walter J. Kawula, Principal
Alternate School

ALTERNATE LEARNING

"Alternate Learning" has different meanings to different people. Its meaning depends partly on the level; that is whether it applies to the individual, the classroom or the institutional level. At the individual level, it involves the selection of appropriate learning strategies to match one's learning style. At the classroom level, it represents good teaching strategies to provide alternative learning modes for varying learning styles and needs. At the institutional level, it can be represented by special classes and resource rooms or special schools to serve specific needs not presently readied by existing institutions. In many cases, these special schools are privately funded institutions. In the Ottawa area, there are 22 private alternate schools belonging to an association of alternative education. In the same area there are also two "Alternative Schools" operated by local school systems.

To those who are associated with Alternate Schools, the meaning of alternate learning varies with the role and purpose of their particular school.

THE ALTERNATE SCHOOL

The Alternate School in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan is a "Storefront School" located among the stores in the downtown area. It's non-school appearance is a deliberate attempt to reach the uninspired and those unwilling or unable to attend existing high schools and junior high schools. The Alternate School is publicly funded and serves the special needs of the areas' three school systems: the Public School System, the Catholic School System, and the Rural School System.

Although Prince Albert has a population of about 35,000 and the Alternate School serves the needs of its three school systems, the size of this school might be a surprise. The Alternate School is funded for an enrollment of 18 student places and a staff of two teachers.

The size of the Alternate School is best explained by the fact that the three school systems it serves have evolved an effective array of in-school special education support services and programs. Some say that its size is a factor which contributes to its success.

HISTORY: HOME TUTORING, LEARNING SERVICES, ALTERNATE SCHOOL

The Alternate School is now in its 9th year of operation. Although I joined the staff as Principal in

August of 1984, I was directly involved in some of the activities leading to the establishment of the Alternate School. In spring of 1972, I was working with Saskatchewan Newstart in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan. Newstart was a publicly funded research corporation which developed and disseminated new methods and materials for training and counselling adults. One of my tasks was to find applications for a program called LINC - Learning Individualized for Canadians. I'll describe the program later, but for now I'll mention that it was used for Adult Basic Education in the areas of Math and English and was very flexible. LINC had already been used to establish individualized upgrading programs in a variety of settings from Church basements to store front schools with adults throughout Canada. I was interested in testing LINC with school age drop-outs. In April of 1972, with the cooperation of Provincial Social Services, I helped implement a home tutoring project using LINC as its base. The project involved a rented home, one teacher, one aide and twelve students aged 14 to 17.

In the fall of 1972, I was asked to help find a new teacher for the home tutoring project. At that time my wife, Linda Kawula, agreed to act as the coordinator of the project. The project became known as Learning Services and operated as a private business on a fee for service basis. Linda coordinated Learning Services from Fall of 1972 to January of 1975. During that period, a home tutoring service was provided for a variety of agencies including the local school systems, social services and Federal Department of Indian Affairs. Teachers were hired and paid on a fee for service basis. At one point there were three teachers working in three different home tutoring situations.

In January of 1975, Linda was ready to return to the classroom so she presented a proposal to local school officials recommending that Learning Services would join the local school systems. As a result, the first Alternate School was opened in a K of C meeting hall in Fall of 1975. The Catholic School System was named administrator but the school was to serve the needs of all local school systems. The school was funded to serve 12 students and one teacher. Since that time, the funding has increased to serve 18 students and two teachers. The location has changed from the K of C hall to a former Pizza Parlour for five years and then finally to its present location.

STUDENTS: AGE, EDUCATION, NEEDS

The students enrolled in the Alternate School over the years have ranged in age from 12 to 19. The majority of these students would fit within the range of 14 to 17 years of age.

Most of the students are at least two academic years behind their peers in academic achievement. Amost all of them stated a junior high school as the last school attended.

Students are referred to the Alternate School for varying reasons. In a four-year follow-up study completed recently, here are some of the reasons stated for referral: school attendance, school behavior, juvenile delinquent, incest, teacher conflict, home discipline, pregnancy, family problems, chemical dependency, emotionally disturbed, student conflicts, refusal to attend school, psychological problems. These reasons would describe the range of student needs catered to by the Alternate School. It is clear that the majority of Alternate School students need to learn appropriate social skills involving how to get along with teachers and peers before they can expect to be successful in other schools.

PROGRAM: WHAT...READINESS, WHY?...PLACEMENT, HOW?... ALTERNATE EDUCATION

The program of the Alternate School focuses on Readiness and Placement. We will discuss "Readiness" first.

READINESS: ATTENDANCE, SOCIALIZATION, UPGRADING, INTEGRATION

The Alternate School Program is more of a readiness service to other schools than a school in itself. All activities conducted are aimed at helping the student get ready to return to a regular school.

Students with attendance problems are encouraged to develop regular attendance habits. This may involve the identification of problems related to irregular attendance and indepth attendance counselling. Parents and support agencies are often involved in the process of attendance improvement.

Many of the Alternate School students require socialization skills to help them cope with teachers and peers. As a result, heavy emphasis is placed on activities which provide the students with opportunities to practice appropriate behaviour while interacting with a variety of teachers, guests and students. Heavy emphasis is placed on Life Skills in real life situations.

Students who have succeeded in regularizing their attendance and those who have normalized their behaviour tend to make considerable progress in academic upgrading. This portion of the program involves basic skills in Math and English as evolved from the LINC program, as well as many of the same subjects included in the junior high schools. Some of these subjects include Industrial Arts, Home Economics, Health, Science, Social Studies, Physical Education, Christian Ethics, career education and work experience.

As a result of the upgrading portion of the Alternate School Program, some students are able to upgrade themselves to high school entry level. At this point the program is aimed at integration with the high school program. The goal then is to place the student into a local high school.

PLACEMENT: SCHOOL, SPECIAL ED, WORK

The placement of students into regular school involves a number of options. First of all there are two high schools in the city. Alternate School students are usually of high school age by the time they are ready to move on. The high schools are the main target for placement. The second option involves the level of placement within the high school. Each high school has a regular entry level of Grade 10. In addition to this the high schools have special education programs for students who lack the credentials for entry into Grade 10.

A major task for the Alternate School is to prepare its students to make a choice of high schools and to ready them for the appropriate level of entry; Grade 10 or Special Education. To accomplish this task, tours, speakers and joint school activities are arranged to familiarize students with facilities and the program of each high school.

For those students unwilling to move on to another school, a career education and work experience program is offered to help them select a field of work as an alternative. Other agencies are then utilized to assist in further vocational training or job placement.

ALTERNATE ED ACTIVITIES: GROUPS, INDIVIDUAL

Most of the activities carried out by the Alternate School resemble those of any other school. The essential difference is the frequency and the personalization of these activities. The school's priorities center around attendance improvement and socialization. The selection of activities reflects these priorities.

Group activities involve tours, speakers, films, class meetings, coffee parties, work bees, hikes. Sports excursions include activities such as cross-country skiing, swimming, camping, horseback riding, canoeing and ball games. Classroom sessions involve reading groups, science lessons, art projects, industrial arts projects, health lessons, driver education classes and career education classes. Home economic's projects involve cooking or sewing.

Each student also participates in a number of individual activities. Academically each student has an individualized Math and English program. Art, music, and industrial arts are also individualized for students with specific interests in a particular project. Each student is encouraged to develop a talent in a particular field of interest. In addition, each student participates in an individualized evaluation-counselling process.

EVALUATION: WEEKLY CREDITS, BI-MONTHLY REPORTS

The Alternate School has always followed a system of regular reporting of student progress. Although the nature of the report card has varied over the years, students have always received a report at least four times a year.

This year we are experimenting with a system of weekly credits. Since we plan our activities on a weekly basis, we have a unique timetable each week. At the end of the week, we sit down with each student and discuss his or her progress for the week. The student is then required to cross off those portions of the timetable that were missed due to absence or non-participation. The remaining activities form a record of weekly credits. In addition the student is encouraged to list all extra individual activities to be considered for credit. These activities may include kitchen or shop work, extra written work, classroom clean-up, or errands. These weekly credit timetables are kept in the student file. This system is helping the students to realize the value of regular attendance.

The weekly reports are then used with students and parents in the bi-monthly pre-report conferences. Report cards are then prepared by teacher assessments of student participation and progress.

PRIORITIES '83-84: ATMOSPHERE, ACCEPTANCE, INTEGRATION

The school's priorities for the 1983-84 year have centered around three areas: Atmosphere, Acceptance and Integration. The first priority, atmosphere, involves a concerted effort on the part of students and staff to make the school comfortable, pleasant and attractive. A good part of the first two months of operation involved student work bee's in clean-up, and remodelling projects. Student involvement in this priority has resulted in pride and respect for the school. The second priority, acceptance, involves telling people about the school. The strategy is to inform people about the program and follow that up by getting students involved in community help activities. This process is a continuous one and its objective is to get the students to accept themselves and the teachers and parents to accept the students and the program. The third priority involves another type of acceptance. Integration involves getting the student to accept the new school that he is being moved to and getting the school to accept the student. The main task here is to improve methods of referral and placement in other schools.

THE LINC PROGRAM

The LINC Program has been a major tool for the implementation of the program at the Alternate School. As promised earlier, I would like to give you a brief description of the LINC Program.

Most of these remarks are taken verbatum from the LINC Manual for Administrators and Instructors, second edition. The manual was prepared by Glen Tippett and Vernon Mullen of the Training Research and Development Station of the Department of Manpower and Immigration in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan. It was published by Saskatchewan Newstart Inc. in 1973.

Although the Training Research Station and Saskatchewan Newstart have long ceased to exist, their work is still carried on by the Advanced Development Division of the Employment Support Branch of Employment and Immigration Canada. Information about the publication and others like it can be obtained from Vernon Mullen, the Director of that division.

Learning Individualized for Canadians (LINC) is an instructional program for adults who want to further prepare themselves to enter vocational training and to improve their competencies in the communications and mathematics required in their everyday personal, work, home and community lives. The program is designed to use an individualized instructional process involving diagnosis, multi-level placement, prescribed learning activities and continuous evaluation. The content of the program permits entry at Grade four to five level and completion at trades entry level, or about Grade ten, depending on local standards and certification requirements.

LINC ADVANTAGES: FLEXIBLE, PORTABLE, CONTINUOUS, EFFICIENT, SYSTEMATIC

The LINC Program is flexible. Units can be added or eliminated to meet the individual needs of students or the standards and levels of different provinces and institutions. The program can be extended to more advanced levels, and it can serve as a model for the development of other courses like science or social studies. Used as a core program, the LINC Program can be the basis of preparation for a variety of occupational courses. It is also flexible with respect to instructional strategies in that any type of classroom organization will work.

The LINC Program is portable. Since many basic education programs operate in temporary and often remote locations away from main training complexes, an attempt has been made in designing the LINC materials to provide for easy movement and arrangement. The limit of four instructor's books in addition to this manual, four kits containing pre-printed copies of all tests, objectives and prescriptions, and the minimum required amount of commercial material give the program the portability needed for these various conditions. The classroom requires only the students' chairs and tables, one bookcase or set of shelves and any suitable table on which to place the kits and the reading labs.

The LINC Program allows continuous intake and continuous graduation. Students can enter the program at any time whenever there is classroom space, and they can leave as soon as they have completed the program. Nobody gets behind due to late entry or absences. No students waste time repeating work that they already know or waiting for others to catch up. They can interrupt their training if necessary and complete it at times suited to their particular needs.

The LINC Program in efficient. Along with the provision for continuous intake scheduling, which provides for high training place utilization, the start-up cost is moderat . When the program is operational, the consumption cost is also moderately low. The commercial reading laboratories constitute a major part of the initial cost. These of course, are not consumed, and loss is minimal if they are properly maintained. Small numbers of text and workbooks are purchased and replaced on a classroom basis as recommended earlier and not "one per student" as commonly prescribed. Furthermore, any training institutions which have been operating a basic education program will have many of the recommended materials on hand. These and any other available materials can be utilized. It is estimated that if the LINC Program kits were totally consumed and some replacements were required in other materials, a class of 15 students would consume about $400 in materials for each 100 days of training. This indicates a cost of about thirty cents per training-day for materials if the recommended core list only is utilized.

The LINC Program uses a systems approach. Objectives are stated in student terms and clearly define the required behaviour. Alternate methods including a wide variety of instructional materials and instructional methods ranging from individualized programmed material to group lectures are used in achieving these objectives. It has a curriculum embedded evaluation system including instruments of diagnosis and placement, continuous progress evaluation and periodic comprehensive progress evaluation. Its flexibility allows on-site adjustments to suit local student population or administrative needs. Finally, following pilot evaluation under experimental conditions, the program has been operated successfully remote from the laboratory. Thus its operational characteristics and effectiveness can be replicated in practice.

LINC COURSES: FUNCTIONAL READING, DEVELOPMENTAL READING, MATHEMATICS

The LINC Program consists of two courses in communications and a course in mathematics. Various components have been prepared and recommended for the program and for the particular courses. These components include the classroom chart, the student placement and progress chart, instructors' manuals, classsroom kits and the various instructional materials which are recommended for use with each course. The following is a descriptive listing of all of the components.

LINC COMPONENTS: MANUAL, CHARTS, COURSE BOOKS, CLASS KIT

LINC Functional Reading, Developmental Reading, and Mathematics courses each have instructors' manuals, classroom kits and charts. The manuals contain objectives, and

technique, including recommendation of various instructional materials for each course.

In addition, a very important component of the LINC Program is the Skill Development Levels Book. This is a bound volume of 15 Skill Development Series Booklets corresponding to the 15 items in the Developmental Reading Course. The book contains an introduction explaining its use and an answer key. Its purpose is to provide instructional activities for each particular reading objective of the course. Practice and review exercises are included - 397 pages. The series is also part of the classsroom kit package: this kit contains 15 copies of each of the Skill Development Series Booklets. Each booklet contains instructional practice and review exercises in each of the objectives in a particular item in the Developmental Reading Course. The booklets can be consumed as write-in books or used as non-consumable text books. A complete answer key is bound separately and included in the kit.

LINC PROCESS: DIAGNOSIS, PLACEMENT, PRESCRIPTION, EVALUATION

As indicated earlier the LINC Program is designed for individualized instruction.

The individualized process involves the following steps:

1) Individualized diagnosis of knowlege and skill levels with respect to the defined objectives.
2) Individualized multi-level placement at the appropriate starting point or level with respect to the objectives.
3) Individually prescribed learning activities employing a variety of multi-media instructional materials, directed at the instructional objectives and appropriate for the learner.
4) Individualized evaluation to measure short and long term goal achievement, valid and reliable with respect to the objectives.

GENERIC SKILLS: LEARNED: ON JOB, IN SCHOOL; USED ON THE JOB

One concept useful to the Alternate School Program is Generic Skills. Generic Skills are skills that are common to a variety of jobs. In 1971 Art Smith of the Training Research Station in Prince Albert initiated a study of these skills in a variety of occupations. The project involved several national surveys and resulted in the analysis of skills used on the job. The skills identified were also specified as learned on the job or learned in school. Generic Skills profiles were prepared for over 30 occupations. These profiles illustrated many skills generic to a variety of occupations. I worked directly with Art Smith on this project and the result of this experience has had a

profound effect on my perception of the required content of educational programs.

GENERIC SKILLS RESULTS: METHODOLOGY, DATA, COURSES, CORE OBJECTIVES

There are many useful products of the Generic Skills Study. To date, there are 12 publications describing some of the results. Some of these are available from:

Stu Conger
Director General
Employment Support Services Branch
Employment and Immigration Canada
Place du Portage, Phase IV
Ottawa/Hull K1A 0J9

The methodology of the Generic Skills Study illustrates how training institutions can design courses relevant to the employers' needs.

The data and sample courses invite trainers to replicate the methodology.

At the Alternate School we have found value in the core objectives generated by the project. These are the Generic Skills (particularly those related to math and communications) which are most common to a large variety of occupations. These are the skills stressed in the upgrading portion of the program. Other skills identified in the area of human relations are also high on our priority list.

Both LINC and Generic Skills have definitely influenced the Alternate School Program.

A CAREER EDUCATION MODEL BASED ON YOUNG PEOPLE'S VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Pierrette Dupont, Professor, University of Sherbrooke

Let me begin by outlining the purpose of this paper as a continuation of the work done by our research group at the Facility of Education, Sherbrook University.

As part of a long-term research project funded from 1975 to 1981 to develop and evaluate a self-teaching system for academic and vocational objectives for secondary schools, (Dupont, 1982), we have adapted and standardized for use in Quebec the latest version of the Career Development Inventory devised by Donald Super and his colleagues. We have published an inventory (Dupont, 1982) and a guide to it (P. Dupont, D. Marceau, 1982), both in French.

This specific research into academic and vocational information has led us to take an interest in the broader field of career education. Another project on the development and evaluation on a vocational exploration method integrated with school subjects, which have been funded since 1981, has expanded our knowledge of the concepts, practices and research associated with career education. We are now undertaking a more comprehensive study on developing and implementing a new career education model for Quebec that allows for different degrees of vocational development among young people.

In the first part, we shall present the results obtained from our Career Development Inventory, completed by some 1,500 Quebec Secondary School students, so as to identify their vocational development needs and also some career education objectives. In the second part, we shall briefly outline the main characteristics of our career education model.

Young People's Needs According to the Results of the Career Development Inventory

When our Inventory was finally adapted and standardized, we administered it to a sample of secondary students representative of the French-speaking population of Quebec, comprising 671 Secondary III (Grade 9) students and 827 Secondary V (Grade 11 or final year) students. In Secondary III, all the students were in the general stream, since those wishing to take vocational training opt for this at the end of Secondary III. In Secondary V, 635 students were in the general stream and 188 were completing a two-year vocational course.

Since these results are a valuable source of data for identifying significant aspects of our students' vocational maturity, we have made a more detailed analysis of the results obtained by these students in each of the four parts of the Inventory that make up the definitive Quebec version. To make this rather technical analysis easier to

follow and help anyone interested in the details of our findings, we have appended tables showing the title of each part, the questions and possible answers, the number of students and the percentage for each question or set of questions.

Before analysing the results of each part, let me remind you that Part I (Career Planning) and Part II (Exploration) are scales of attitudes toward vocational development, while Part III (Decision-Making) and Part IV (World-of-Work Information) are cognitive scales. We acknowledge that comparative studies of data from other provinces or countries would enable us not only to judge Quebec students' degree of vocational maturity in these regards better, but also to make a tentative assessment of the effectiveness of guidance and information services in Quebec. We have to confine ourselves to questions and theories about our results. Let us now turn to the first part and see how carefully young people plan their careers.

PART I - CAREER PLANNING

Tables I, II and III, appended to this paper, show the results of this part, which contains twenty-five questions. The first twelve (Table I) tell us how much planning students have done as regards their careers and how committed they are. We learn, for example, if they have taken steps to find out about schools and vocations, engaged in activities connected with their orientation or chosen the appropriate courses. Looking at the total results for answers A and B in Table I, we see that 40.83% of Secondary III Students and 28% of Secondary V students say they have not thought or made plans about their career, while 23.71% of Secondary III students and 40% of Secondry V students have made definite plans and know how to carry them out. When we compare the results for certain questions about more direct and concrete action by the school, we find that a very large proportion of Secondary III and V students have not thought or made plans about points 5 and 6: "Taking part in school or out-of-school activities". We may infer that the school does not impress upon students sufficiently the importance of gaining a variety of experiences, even outside regular classes, so they will know themselves better and find out what might suit them.

On the other hand, in response to questions 3 and 4, "Taking classes which will help me", students report they have made definite palns and know what to do to carry them out in 32% of cases in Secondary III and 53% in Secondary V. Although the results for these questions are among the most positive in Part I, we think too many students seem not to see the very close connection between school activities, their current experiences and potential future vocational activities. We are inclined to see this as one explanation for the lack of motivation among secondary students and the

high drop-out rate. The latest Quebec Department of Education statistics published in the 1982 vocational training policy for young people show that 30% of those leaving secondary school do not have their graduation diploma. The results for question 12 also lead us to believe that students could be more aware that they are already workers engaged in a career and they are building for their future now.

Before leaving the first section of Part I, we would like to observe that the results from question 1, "Finding out about educational and occupational possibilities", are disappointing, for only 17% of Secondry III students and 36.8% of Secondary V students have made definite plans and know what to do to carry them out when they must opt for either a general program or vocational training in a particular area. Is this because existing academic and vocational information services in the schools are, as a rule, poorly organized and not very accessible? Are students not aware enough of the need for information and not adept enough at gathering documentation? The results are even more disturbing if we consider that 188 our of 823 Secondary V students were already in their last year of vocational training, that is, about to enter the world of work.

Looking at the findings for questions 8 and 9 in particular, we see that students are not properly aware of the developments that could affect the achievement of their vocational objectives, such as lack of money or difficulty in finding a job.

The results for questions 13, 14 and 15 are given in Table II. Students are asked to determine how much time and thought they give to making choices. They feel they attach greater importance to choosing an occupation. The other findings confirm those for questions 3, 4, 5 and 6 and corroborate our conclusion that the school does not emphasize the relations between prevocational activities, classes and student activities on the one hand and actual occupational activities on the other.

How do Secondary III and V students perceive their plans for after secondary school? In response to question 16, 55.9% of Secondary III students and 72% of Secondary V students said their plans were fairly clear or quite clear, almost firm. We think it is natural for the younger students in Secondary III not to have as firm plans as those in Secondary V, who are making decisive choices either to enter the job market immediately or to take specific vocational training or go on to university studies in a particular field. But how is it that 28% of these Secondary V students in their final year, nearly a quarter of whom are completing a vocational course, do not have clear plans? Do they need more help? No doubt they feel they do not know enough about the occupation or occupational sector that interests them. The responses to questions 17 to 25 in this part, presented in Table III, shed some light on this

matter. In this final section of Part I, students are asked to assess their knowledge of the area of work or type of occupation that interests them most. The possible answers are given at the top of Table III. Overall, 40.30% of the Secondary III and 53.82% of the Secondary V students, if we combine choices D and E, appear to think they have a good or great deal of knowlege about the type of occupation that interests them.

When we look at the results for question 20, we note that nearly a quarter of Secondary V students and nearly half of Secondary III students say they have little knowledge of the education or training needed to get into the occupation they are interested in.

Apart from the basic salary offered in the occupation (question 23), which students claim they know little about and which we do not consider very important in any case, the data show that the different ways of getting into the occupation and the chances of advancing in it are the areas about which students at both levels report the least knowledge.

This partial analysis of the results for Part I points to certain career planning attitudes that ought to be developed, and we can assert fearlessly that education ought to make secondary students think more about their careers. Let us remember that only 40% of graduating Secondary V students, a quarter of whom are at the end of their vocational training as they complete the Inventory, say they have made definite plans for their careers and know how to carry them out. Furthermore, the results for Part I do not show any significant differences between general and vocational stream students.

It seems to us that young people should be made more aware of the need to obtain information and to learn how to obtain information, so that they can learn even more about the academic world and the world of work. More effective education strategies should also be devised to help them connect their school activities with the reality of the working world and connect their present choices with their future ones.

PART II - EXPLORATION

Now we turn to the results for Part II (Exploration), which reveal attitudes toward exploring career paths. Our findings are presented in two sections, in tables IV and V. The first covers questions 1 to 13 and the second questions 14 to 25. In the first part, the student is asked to say where he would go for information or help in making plans for work or further education; the results thus show students' dispositions toward the thirteen sources of information or guidance mentioned. In the second section, the student is asked how much useful information for making his job or education plans he has received from the same sources. It is interesting to analyse the results for these

two sections. For our interpretation, we have taken answers A and B together and answers D and E together. These combined results are given in tables VI and VII. Answer C may also be considered to qualify our interpretation.

Turning first to the mean results for each section of the part, we see that 56.30% of Secondary III students and 64.11% of Secondary V students would probably or definitely consult all the sources mentioned, but only 26.90% of Secondary III students and 29.30% of Secondary V students say they have been given a good or great deal of useful information. On the other hand, nearly half of all Secondary III students and 45.79% of Secondary V students say they have received no or very little useful information from all these sources. We could understand this finding for Secondary III on the theory that these students still have time to get information, but when nearly half the graduating students in Secondary V, a quarter of whom are already trained to enter the job market, say they have received little or no useful information, we should surely ask why, if not feel alarmed.

Now let us see which sources young people rely on most and how much useful information they owe to them. To simplify our analysis, we shall not consider coaches as sources of information or help, or guidance counsellors outside the school, who are seldom available to secondary students. Note that when the Inventory was administered in Quebec, guidance counsellors and academic and occupational information teachers were considered school counsellors.

It is encouraging to note that 86% of young people in both Secondary III and Secondary V would probably or definitely go to school counsellors, but it is somewhat less satisfactory to find that 53.2% of Secondary III students and 64.9% of Secondary V students report they have received a good or great deal of useful information from these counsellors.

In Secondary V, people in the occupation or at the institution under consideration take second place as sources of information: 80.8% of graduating students would probably or definitely look to them for information or help. However, 35.2% of these students say they have received little or no useful information from them, and only 41.9% say they have had a good or great deal of information from them. No doubt this source of information should be exploited much more.

Books were mentioned as a useful source by students at both levels, but only 33.6% of Secondary III students and 38.2% of Secondary V students report they have gathered a good or great deal of useful information from them. We should perhaps be hesitant to dismiss all written sources on the grounds that young people are reading less and less.

Parents are ranked as third as a probable or definite source of information and help by Secondary III students and sixth by Secondary V students, in the proportions of 74.7% and 66.4% respectively. However, only 45.3% of Secondary

III students and 34.4% of Secondary V students say they have received a good or great deal of useful information from them. Since over two-thirds of these young people say they would go to their parents, should an effort not be made to give parents more information so that they can provide more help with guidance?

The same question arises with teachers, who also play a crucial role in young people's vocational development. Although 60.5% of Secondary III students and 65.6% of Secondary V students say they would go to their teachers for data and help, only 31.8% in Secondary III and 34.6% in Secondary V say they have received a good or great deal of useful information.

Combining the sources normally found in school libraries (books, audio visual aids and calendars), we find that 60.5% of Secondary III students and 69.47% of Secondary V students would probably or definitely use these sources. It is surprising that only 22.66% of Secondary III students and 27.26% of Secondary V students report finding a good or great deal of useful information here. Should we infer that these sources are not accessible enough in the schools or simply not used?

To wind up our analysis of the findings as regards exploration, we may conclude that although 56.9% of Secondary III students and 64% of Secondary V students are inclined to look for information or help in making their career plans, schools should find ways of encouraging the rest to explore further. Schools should also make much better use of certain sources highly regarded by young people: representatives of the occupation or school, books, calendars, and audio-visual aids; it should train and encourage teachers and parents to act, make guidance specialists more available to students and convince them of the necessity of providing more help with exploring career options.

PART III - DECISION-MAKING

As we noted in Table VIII, Part III of the Career Development Inventory is a cognitive scale containing twenty brief descriptions of situations in which young people have to make decisions regarding vocational orientation. It measures knowledge of the factors to be considered in making such decisions and skill in applying career planning and decision-making principles in a variety of situations. The theory is that students able to solve the guidance problems in these descriptions are more able to make sound decisions about their own careers.

In Table VIII, the total result for this part is 60.94% correct in Secondary III and 69.80% in Secondary V. For a more detailed analysis, we have tried to group questions together by content and results. Secondary III and V students scored equally high on questions 1, 6, 14 and 17. Over 80% of students at both levels found the right answer

for questions 6, 13, 14 and 18, which are more or less directly related to choosing training or schools. Students happened to be making important choices about schools when the Inventory was administered. On the other hand, questions 2, 7, 8, 9 and 15, dealing with the steps to take in seeking information or the order in which factors should be weighed in making a decision, were answered correctly by only 51.4% of Secondary III and 62.5% of Secondary V students. The questions about the most important factors to consider in various situations were answered correctly by 62.5% of Secondary III students and 73% of Secondary V students. The poor showing on the final question, 48.73% in Secondary III and 59.75% in Secondary V, suggests that these young people are not properly aware of the consequences of decisions regarding courses.

To interpret these results, we need to consider some Quebec school statistics. In the fall of 1983, 47% of Secondary IV students were taking vocational training, and in the winter of 1983, 50.2% of CEGEP students were enrolled in the vocational training sector. Thus, since nearly half of all Secondary III and V students are already making fairly definite choices about their future occupations, we can conclude that too many students still need help with learning to make rational decisions. They need to know more about career-related developmental tasks and how to carry them out.

We feel that to promote vocational development, the school system, beginning in elementary school, should include in all programs objectives relating to the gradual development of decision-making skills instead of merely offering a few courses on decision-making just when students have to make important decisions about their careers. Indeed, Hoyt (1977), the U.S. authority on career education, recommends integrating career education concepts into school programs in this way.

PART IV - WORLD-OF-WORK INFORMATION

This cognitive scale of the Inventory contains forty questions. The detailed results are arranged in tables IX and X. A more accurate title might be "Information on career development and the world of work". The first twenty-six questions are designed to measure knowledge of vocational development tasks during the exploration and settling-in stages described by Super (1957; Super and Bohn, 1970). The next eleven questions (27 to 37) measure knowledge of the world-of-work (organization, training required, tools used and so forth). The last three questions cover knowledge of the techniques used in finding and keeping a job.

The overall success rate on this part, which shows how well informed students are about career development and occupations, is 55.79% in Secondary III and 65.76% in Secondary V. We note in passing that on this cognitive

scale, like part III, there is a significant difference between the overall results of the Secondary V students enrolled in the general stream and those completing their vocational training. The latter shows less knowledge of decision-making, career development tasks and the world of work.

The scores on questions 1 to 26 were 55.23% for Secondary III students and 65.23% for Secondary V students. The results for questions 27 to 37 were fairly similar: 54.66% for Secondary III and 65.57% for Secondary V students. Better results were reported for questions 38, 39 and 40, dealing with jobs: 64.70% for Secondary III and 71.04% for Secondary V students.

If we try to interpret the results from the first section, we see that this type of question is difficult, to say the least, for secondary students, no doubt because they do not know enough about career models and are thus unaware of the determining factors and developmental stages. Perhaps such concepts are taught in too theoretical a manner in our schools. We could follow the lead of the method developed by Super and Bowlsbey (1979) in their Guided Career Exploration.

For a more detailed analysis of the results for questions 27 to 37, dealing with occupations and the world of work, we have assembled a body of data. Students know very little about manpower trends and development, since the mean score on these questions was 32.10% in Secondary III and 39.03% in Secondary V. They know a little more about the training required for various occupations, since the mean score on this was 46.03% in Secondary III and 62.83% in Secondary V. The tools and instruments used in various jobs seem more familiar to these young people.

If we reflect that nearly half these Secondary III and V students in the general stream will be taking vocational training the next year, these results should convince us the school system ought to encourage students to explore occupations more and give them more information on real social and economic conditions, career development and employment so as to help them choose a career and adjust to it when the time comes.

As Super observed in Athens in 1978, in a lecture entitled "What Youth Know About Occupations", "We can logically assume that the more someone knows about occupations and the world-of-work, the likelier he is to choose a lifestyle suited to his abilities, interests and needs."

The needs of secondary students as they emerge from the Career Development Inventory results constitute an important basis for the career education objectives in the new model we are trying to develop for Quebec. We shall outline only a few of its characteristics here.

Characteristics of a Career Education Model

We should begin by stating that our model is largely inspired by the career education concept that developed in

the United States over a decade ago and has spread through several other countries, among them Australia, where a similar career education policy has been adopted (Freeman, 1981), and the United Kingdom (Law, 1983). In Canada, the U.S. concept has contributed to several plans, including one by Studd (1983). As Kathie Swenson observed in Education Canada (1982), the term "career education" is often applied to developmental experiences as well as structured courses, activities and programs.

In Quebec, the Department of Education has introduced a compulsory secondary school program known as "education for choosing a career", but in our view, it meets only a part of career education needs. On the other hand the Department's current policies on vocational training, guidance and social and occupational integration tie in closely with our model's objectives.

This model focusses on work as a dimension of life. It gives work a human value, however, by considering it not only as a social obligation but also as the answer to a person's basic need to feel he is someone because he does something and to know that other people need him, partly in paid work but also in unpaid work.

Career education encompasses every activity and experience by which people learn about work and prepare to do it. By this definition, career education is not the single basic goal of education, just as work is not the single goal of life.

Our model is developmental, since it is based on vocational development processes. As a result, it applies from elementary school onward.

In this model, career education objectives are integrated into all the student's learning experiences, that is, into every course and activity inside and outside the school. This implies participation and teamwork by all those involved in his education: teachers, parents, guidance counsellors and representatives of job environments.

The emphasis in the model is on connecting school and work, or in other words, school and the world of business and industry. Such a link helps motivate students to study by varying their learning patterns and letting them see the relation between their present and future activities. It also lets them acquire "employability" and "adaptability" skills to help them adjust to our changing technological society.

Without going into too much detail, we would like to mention that our model's objectives include developing career planning and exploration attitudes, a more realistic vocational self-image (through experiential exploration), knowledge of academic opportunities and of the world-of-work and its organization, skills in decision-making and in techniques of getting and keeping a job, personally significant attitudes and values relating to work and disregard of sex stereotyping of jobs.

Finally our model gives particular attention to students in vocational training, who are the most neglected in the Quebec education system. Our aim is to prepare them for the transition from school to work. This is a matter of special concern to such international organizations as the European Community, the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), the Council of Europe and the Nordic Council, as well as the OECD International Conference held in Salzburg in April 1983.

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TABLE 1 - Part I Career Planning (Questions 1 to 12)

Questions 1 to 12: Choose only one answer, the one that best describes what you have been doing until now. Have you given much thought to these ideas? Have you made many plans?

Possible answers: (A) I have not thought of doing that. (B) I have thought about it a little, but have not yet made any plans. (C) I have made some plans, but I am not yet quite sure. (D) I have made definite plans, but I do not yet know how I am going to carry them out. (E) I have made definite plans and I know how to carry them out.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=671)					SECONDARY V (N=827)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
1. Get information on schools and careers by going to the library or documentation centre, writing away for information or talking with someone who is well informed.	11.3	28.5	35.6	7.6	17.0	5.8	15.0	30.8	11.6	36.8
2. Talk over career plans with an adult who knows me.	7.7	15.9	37.9	13.7	24.8	4.6	9.9	24.3	15.5	45.6
3. Choose courses that will help me after I've left school.	9.2	18.0	28.4	13.6	30.9	4.5	8.6	17.4	12.5	57.0
4. Choose courses that will help me in my studies or at work.	17.9	20.6	20.4	13.4	27.7	12.7	12.0	14.3	12.0	49.1
5. Participate in school or extra-curricular activities that will help me in my studies or work.	40.7	23.8	14.5	7.5	13.5	27.1	20.9	12.3	9.7	30.0
6. Participate in school or extra-curricular activities that will help me after I've left school.	47.7	24.1	11.8	6.0	10.4	37.7.	23.6	7.6	7.6	23.5
7. Find a part-time or summer job.	9.9	27.0	19.1	16.9	27.2	7.4	16.6	15.5	20.2	40.3
8. Earn money so I can further my education.	21.5	23.5	17.0	16.8	21.2	16.6	14.5	13.0	19.5	36.4
9. Overcome problems (lack of money, distance from school, physical handicap and so forth).	38.4	21.4	14.4	9.1	16.6	24.4	17.0	12.4	13.2	33.1
10. Acquire the necessary training or experience.	7.2	19.8	23.2	16.5	33.2	3.9	10.4	15.4	17.8	52.5
11. Get a job once I have finished my training.	11.6	23.7	20.6	20.7	23.4	6.7	16.2	16.7	27.7	32.8
12. Do what I can to become a good worker.	6.0	18.5	22.1	20.6	32.8	4.4	13.1	17.4	22.0	43.2
TOTAL	18.76	22.07	21.92	13.53	23.71	12.98	14.81	16.42	15.77	40.02

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TABLE II - Part I Career Planning (Questions 13 to 16)

Questions 13, 14 and 15: Students differ greatly one from another in the amount of time and thought that they put into their decisions. How would you rate yourself, compared to your friends?

Possible answers: (A) I spend less time and thought on these decisions than most. (B) Probably a little less than average (C) About average. (D) Probably a little more than average. (E) I spend more time and thought on them than do most.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=671)					SECONDARY V (N=827)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
13. In choosing my courses.	4.2	7.7	54.8	20.9	12.4	3.8	6.8	52.5	25.8	11.1
14. In choosing my student activities.	13.6	10.9	51.1	16.5	7.9	12.9	13.7	46.8	17.3	9.3
15. In choosing an occupation.	5.1	6.1	37.6	26.4	24.9	3.9	5.0	38.5	29.1	23.6
TOTAL	7.63	8.23	47.83	21.28	15.06	6.86	8.50	45.93	24.06	14.66

Question 16: My plans for when I've finished secondary school are:

Possible answers: (A) Not at all clear or definite. (B) Not very clear. (C) Clear on some things, not clear on others. (D) Fairly clear. (E) Very clear, nearly set.

QUESTION	SECONDARY III (N=671)					SECONDARY V (N=827)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
16. My plans for when I've finished secondary school are:	3.0	10.3 (44.0)	30.7	40.1 (55.9)	15.8	2.2	3.5 (27.5)	21.8	44.4 (72.0)	28.1

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TABLE III - Part I Career Planning (Questions 17 to 25)

Questions 17 to 25: Choose from among the five sentences below that which best describes what you know about the line of work or type of occupation that interests you most.

Possible answers: (A) I know practically nothing about it. (B) I have a fairly limited knowledge of it. (C) I have an average knowledge of it. (D) I am fairly knowledgeable about it. (E) I know a lot about it.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=671)					SECONDARY V (N=827)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
17. What people in the occupation actually do.	1.6	14.3	36.7	35.3	12.1	0.6	10.6	29.1	43.0	16.6
18. The skills required for the occupation.	2.2	13.1	30.1	38.8	15.7	0.6	7.4	21.5	48.9	21.5
19. Working conditions in the occupation.	6.6	19.4	31.7	30.8	11.5	3.1	16.6	27.6	38.9	13.8
20. General and specialized training needed to enter the occupation.	4.9	14.8	31.1	31.9	17.3	1.0	5.4	16.6	37.0	40.0
21. The need for workers in the occupation in the future.	8.6	19.2	34.1	28.3	9.7	4.4	13.2	25.8	35.0	21.7
22. The various ways of entering the occupation.	10.3	27.0	32.1	23.3	7.3	6.2	19.2	32.4	31.5	10.7
23. The base pay offered in the occupation.	19.4	22.1	28.5	21.5	8.5	11.4	20.8	29.5	28.2	10.2
24. Opportunities for advancement in the occupation.	11.8	25.0	31.4	24.6	7.2	9.3	16.4	32.2	30.4	11.7
25. What takes place in a day or week of work in the occupation.	8.3	17.7	34.3	28.6	11.0	7.5	18.7	28.5	29.2	16.1
TOTAL	8.19	19.18 (27.37)	32.22	29.23	11.14 (40.37)	4.9	14.26	27.02	35.79 (53.82)	18.03

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TABLE IV - Part II Exploration (questions 1 to 13)

Questions 1 to 13 Show where you would go for information or help in making your plans for work or further education.

Possible answers: A Definitely not. B Probably not. C Don't know if I would. D Probably. E Definitely.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)					SECONDARY V (N=825)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
1 Father, mother, uncles, aunts, etc	2.2	5.5	17.5	38.1	36.6	5.8	9.3	18.4	37.7	28.7
2 Brothers, sisters or cousins	10.3	13.6	26.0	35.0	15.1	10.7	17.0	21.0	29.8	21.6
3 Friends	6.6	13.9	30.1	36.1	13.2	6.4	10.7	25.8	39.8	17.2
4 Coaches of school or other teams	28.6	27.0	26.4	10.8	7.2	36.2	24.0	21.6	12.9	5.3
5 Teachers	4.6	7.9	26.8	36.4	24.1	7.4	7.8	19.3	39.5	26.1
6 School counsellors	1.0	1.9	10.9	26.2	59.9	3.0	2.5	7.9	24.6	61.9
7 Counsellors outside the school	8.4	12.6	31.1	26.9	21.1	8.5	12.6	26.2	31.4	21.3
8 Other adults who know things and can help	1.8	6.1	25.7	43.9	22.5	1.9	3.0	8.2	47.9	29.0
9 Books with the information I need	2.2	4.9	15.1	38.5	39.1	2.1	5.0	14.4	32.8	45.8
10 Audio-visual aids such as tapes, films, slides or computer programs	6.9	10.9	29.1	30.8	22.3	7.3	9.9	19.9	33.0	29.9
11 School calendars	6.3	8.7	34.2	30.8	20.0	4.4	6.4	22.3	37.7	29.2
12 People in the occupation or at the school I am considering	2.1	5.5	22.4	39.5	30.5	2.2	3.6	13.3	32.6	48.2
13 TV shows, movies or magazines	4.3	6.9	22.3	37.0	29.5	3.9	5.8	19.3	39.1	31.9
TOTAL	6.56	9.64	24.43	30.07	26.23	7.67	9.04	19.04	33.75	30.46

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TABLE V - Part II Exploration (questions 14 to 25)

Questions 14 to 25 Now show what sources have already given you useful information for making your plans for work or further education.

Possible answers: A No useful information. B Very little useful information. C Some useful information. D A good deal of useful information. E A great deal of useful information.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)					SECONDARY V (N=825)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
14 Father, mother, uncles, aunts, etc	6.1	16.8	31.7	26.3	19.0	10.4	22.1	33.2	20.5	13.8
15 Brothers, sisters or cousins	29.9	24.4	21.1	17.9	6.7	28.8	20.7	25.2	15.5	9.7
16 Friends	21.6	34.0	27.2	12.1	5.1	15.6	28.0	32.0	17.1	7.3
17 Coaches of school or other teams	63.7	18.8	10.2	5.4	1.9	71.2	15.5	8.1	3.8	1.5
18 Teachers	16.1	23.0	29.0	22.7	9.1	18.9	18.9	27.6	22.1	12.5
19 School counsellors	13.0	11.5	22.3	25.7	27.5	7.9	8.1	19.2	29.0	35.9
20 Counsellors outside the school	59.6	13.5	12.4	6.3	8.2	56.2	12.7	14.1	9.9	7.0
21 Books with the information I need	16.0	17.2	33.2	23.4	10.2	14.8	16.4	30.7	23.3	14.9
22 Audio-visual aids such as tapes, films, slides or computer programs	39.5	25.7	20.9	10.8	3.2	43.4	20.6	22.7	9.9	3.4
23 School calendars	29.1	22.4	28.0	14.3	6.1	19.7	19.8	30.3	18.6	11.7
24 People in the occupation or at the school I am considering	27.2	17.6	22.1	21.2	11.8	23.6	11.6	22.9	22.7	19.2
25 TV shows, movies or magazines	17.5	26.9	27.8	18.1	9.7	19.0	25.6	32.2	15.3	7.9
TOTAL	28.28	20.98	23.83	17.02	9.88	27.46	18.33	24.35	17.31	11.99

TABLE VI - Part II Exploration (questions 1 to 13)

Questions 1 to 13 Show where you would go for information or help in making your plans for work or further education.

Possible answers: A Definitely not B Probably not C Don't know if I would. D Probably. E Definitely.

	QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)			SECONDARY V (N=825)		
		A + B	C	D + E	A + B	C	D + E
1	Father, mother, uncles, aunts, etc	7.7	17.5	74.7	15.1	18.4	66.4
2	Brothers, sisters or cousins	23.9	26.0	50.1	27.7	21.0	51.4
3	Friends	20.5	30.1	49.3	17.1	25.8	57.0
4	Coaches of school or other teams	55.6	26.4	18.0	60.2	21.6	18.2
5	Teachers	12.5	26.8	60.5	15.2	19.3	65.6
6	School counsellors	2.9	10.9	86.1	5.5	7.9	86.5
7	Counsellors outside the school	21.0	31.1	48.0	21.1	26.2	52.7
8	Other adults who know things and can help	7.9	25.7	66.4	4.9	18.2	76.9
9	Books with the information I need	7.1	15.1	76.6	7.1	14.4	78.6
10	Audio-visual aids such as tapes, films, slides or computer programs	17.8	29.1	53.1	17.2	19.9	62.0
11	School calendars	15.0	34.2	50.8	10.8	22.3	66.9
12	People in the occupation or at the school I am considering	7.6	22.4	70.7	5.8	13.3	80.8
13	TV shows, movies or magazines	11.2	22.3	66.5	7.7	19.3	71.0
	TOTAL	16.20	24.43	56.30	16.71	19.04	64.11

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TABLE VII - Part II Exploration (questions 14 to 25)

Questions 14 to 25 Now show what sources have already given you useful information for making your plans for work or further education.

Possible answers: A No useful information. B Very little useful information. C Some useful information. D A good deal of useful information. E A great deal of useful information.

	QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668) A + B	C	D + E	SECONDARY V (N=825) A + B	C	D + E
14	Father, mother, uncles, aunts, etc	22.9	31.7	45.3	32.5	33.2	34.30
15	Brothers, sisters or cousins	54.3	21.1	24.6	49.5	25.2	25.2
16	Friends	55.6	27.2	17.2	43.6	32.0	24.4
17	Coaches of school or other teams	82.5	10.2	7.3	96.7	8.1	5.3
18	Teachers	39.1	29.0	31.8	37.8	27.6	34.6
19	School counsellors	24.5	22.3	53.2	16.0	19.2	64.9
20	Counsellors outside the school	73.1	12.4	14.5	68.9	14.1	16.9
21	Books with the information I need	33.2	33.2	33.6	31.2	30.7	38.3
22	Audio-visual aids such as tapes, films, slides or computer programs	65.2	20.9	14.0	64.0	22.7	13.3
23	School calendars	51.5	28.0	20.4	39.5	30.3	30.3
24	People in the occupation or at the school I am considering	44.8	22.1	33.0	35.2	22.9	41.9
25	TV shows, movies or magazines	44.4	27.8	27.8	44.6	32.2	23.2
	TOTAL	49.26	23.83	26.90	45.79	24.85	29.30

TABLE VIII - Part III Decision-Making
Percentage of right answers

This cognitive scale contains twenty short descriptions of situations where young people must make vocational decisions. It measures a student's skill in applying the principles of vocational decision-making.

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)	SECONDARY V (N=825)	QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)	SECONDARY V (N=825)
1.	63.12	63.95	11.	68.82	77.07
2.	48.88	58.60	12.	58.17	68.37
3.	53.82	62.68	13.	80.06	85.97
4.	31.48	48.03	14.0	86.96	88.41
5.	60.06	75.00	15.	53.60	64.92
6.	88.01	88.54	16.	67.17	72.74
7.	48.58	66.33	17.	52.10	52.36
8.	51.35	60.20	18.	80.33	87.52
9.	54.59	74.01	19.	55.56	59.75
10.	67.47	77.96	20.	48.73	59.75

TOTAL	SECONDARY III	(N=668)	60.94
	SECONDARY V	(N=825)	69.80

TABLE IX - Part IV World-of-Work Information
Percentage of right answers

QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)	SECONDARY V (N=825)	QUESTIONS	SECONDARY III (N=668)	SECONDARY V (N=825)
1.	73.08	70.08	21.	47.97	54.46
2.	62.26	72.96	22.	49.70	62.79
3.	36.54	50.64	23.	26.66	50.70
4.	50.60	60.61	24.	57.59	71.68
5.	79.40	87.12	25.	50.98	60.69
6.	49.62	59.69	26.	74.10	82.76
7.	31.73	43.35	27.	59.49	70.04
8.	70.69	79.31	28.	42.86	52.75
9.	62.50	72.03	29.	33.68	40.08
10.	67.97	78.98	30.	26.81	48.79
11.	51.29	67.69	31.	62.71	72.89
12.	43.91	50.64	32.	48.57	66.79
13.	66.47	81.89	33.	77.11	85.29
14.	43.87	54.79	34.	69.62	83.35
15.	83.58	91.21	35.	73.23	79.41
16.	40.27	47.90	36.	30.53	37.98
17.	69.17	77.91	37.	76.66	83.91
18.	60.27	69.33	38.	67.17	71.23
19.	36.[illegible]	41.82	39.	63.44	72.63
20.	49.62	55.03	40.	63.50	69.27

TOTAL SECONDARY III (N=668) 55.79
SECONDARY V (N=825) 65.76

TABLE X - Part IV World-of-Work Information

Questions 1 to 26 Knowledge of occupational development tasks during the exploration and settling-in stages

	PERCENTAGE OF RIGHT ANSWERS
SECONDARY III	55.23
SECONDARY V	65.23

Questions 27 to 37 Knowledge of the world of work, occupations, training required, tools and so forth

	PERCENTAGE OF RIGHT ANSWERS
SECONDARY III	54.66
SECONDARY V	65.57

Questions 38 to 40 Knowledge of the techniques used in finding and keeping a job

	PERCENTAGE OF RIGHT ANSWERS
SECONDARY III	55.79
SECONDARY V	65.76

COUNSELLING WOMEN FOR NEW SKILLS AND NEW OPPORTUNITIES

Audrey F. Swail, M.S.W., Ontario Ministry of Labour

For those of us here today who counsel young females in schools and youth employment centres, women in colleges and universities, women who are adult learners, these are very challenging times.

In addition to rapid fluctuations in the economy and in the labour market we are forced to deal with the increasing self-awareness and rising expectations of our female clients. No longer do I need to defend or explain the need for counselling women for new skills and new opportunities. The question is no longer why, but how!

I am pleased to be here to address this subject today and I suggest that this is just a beginning - and that future consultations will bring before us further insights from the numerous research projects and programs being developed across Canada relating to various aspects of vocational counselling for women. There is much to learn, and I can only touch on a few key areas for your consideration this morning.

Today, we are faced with a number of circumstances that make counselling women for new skills and opportunities an urgent matter.

When we review the employment statistics in Canada over the past twenty years, one feature stands out predominantly: - the dramatic increase in the participation of women. During this period, the participation rate of women has doubled, with women entering the work force at triple the rate of men.

While there are many reasons cited for this phenomenon, the major contributing factor has been economic survival for women themselves and for their families. For most women today, as for most men, paid work is no trivial pursuit; it is not a matter of choice but it is absolute necessity.

For vocational counsellors, this presents a special challenge. No longer can we take for granted the fact that women will be content to aspire to a limited role in the work place. As the barriers that have previously kept women out of many jobs begin to fall, new opportunities are rapidly opening; allowing women a wider expression of their talents and skills than ever before. Vocational counsellors will be pleased to keep up with changing demands of the labour market, and of women who will no longer be content to aspire to a limited number of traditional female occupations.

Of course, the situation should not be overstated. Progress has been slow. One hundred years ago, 80% of the women working outside the home, were employed in just ten occupations. Today, 65% of the women in the work place work in 20 occupations, classified generally as clerical, sales and service; jobs that usually are low-paying and offer limited opportunities for advancement. However, if we look closely, we still find that there are at least some women

today working in almost every occupation, and at every level of employment, and this is a trend that will likely continue and accelerate over the next decade.

Today, female high school students and adult women concerned with career development are getting the message loud and clear...There are new skills to be learned, new opportunities to be grasped. The message is coming from:

GOVERNMENT, concerned about the projected unemployment statistics for females resulting from the automation of clerical work;
SOCIAL SCIENTISTS, concerned with the projected poverty statistics for sole support mothers on welfare and elderly women without adequate pensions;
EMPLOYERS, who are requiring more skilled workers and are wanting to widen the pool of qualified people as potential employees, and
WOMENS' GROUPS, who realize that equal opportunity for women depends on their ability to gain access to all sectors and levels of employment.

WHAT ARE THESE NEW SKILLS AND OPPORTUNITIES?

Labour market analysts inform us that over the next decade there will be a dramatic restructuring of the work force. This will mean a decline in the demand for clerical workers and skilled trades as we know them. The demand will shift towards occupations related to electronics, computers and science.

Some futurists have gone so far as to suggest that the new computerized communication and manufacturing systems will divide workers into those with high level skills and those relegated to pushing buttons. Moving away from this very extreme view, I nevertheless believe that most people who expect to be employed will need to become familiar with computers and computerized systems. These will include teachers, counsellors, nurses and managers as well as auto mechanics and machinists and office workers. In fact, as we move further and faster into the revolution in micro-technology, manufacturing and clerical work are the two fields that will feel the greatest impact. For men this impact has been dramatic and painful as the number of plant closures increases along with the introduction of robots and computerized manufacturing. For women the change has been less dramatic, but just as painful. The difference for men and women has been largely a matter of scale. While less than ten percent of men in the work force work in manufacturing, fully one third of women workers are concentrated in clerical jobs. Another third of women workers are in sales and service jobs, also targetted for automation. Here we are talking about nearly three million women in Canada who may be directly affected by the introduction of microelectronics technology in the work place.

The positive side of automation is that it has the potential to create new opportunities if people are able to acquire new skills. Many will require additional training in math and science and computerized systems management. All will need to be more open to a wider range of options, including those that have traditionally been gender-based.

What I want to get across to you this morning, more than anything else, is the urgent need to re-examine our basic assumptions, sources of information, testing mechanisms and specialized techniques, so that we can meet this challenge creatively and effectively.

About two years ago my work at the Ontario Women's Bureau opened my eyes to a phenomenon for which I was unprepared. Nothing I had read in relation to vocational counselling for women had addressed this particular aspect of bias interference. What I am talking about is something that was happening in my own experience with clients, which could possibly be generalized across the profession. This was the "Risk" I felt I was taking when I sought to introduce the idea of a non-traditional career option to a person I was counselling. While cognitively I saw all options potentially open for my clients, I tended to want to narrow those options as quickly as possible, for my comfort, not theirs. It was as if I were overstepping my bounds to suggest something dramatically different. This block fascinated me.

I imagine that I would have had the same difficulty if I had been counselling men. However, for men, a much wider range of occupations are traditional, and the choices would not have been as limited as they were for women.

I checked this out with other counsellors, and discovered that even when counsellors were committed to widening career options for women, some counsellors were much more successful in accomplishing this, than others.

I then consulted with the Women's Workshop Operation in London, Ontario. This was made up of a group of educators and counsellors who had researched this phenomenon extensively in order to develop curriculum for a non-traditional orientation program for women, called Women Into Trades and Technology. With the help of this group, I developed a workshop for vocational counsellors called "The New Skills Workshop", where counsellors could improve their techniques for counselling women for entry into non-traditional occupations. The new skills workshop was offered successfully to three different groups of counsellors and it is still evolving.

Through a development process we discovered some key elements that can assist counsellors to become more effective in widening career options for their clients.

1. Examine your personal assumptions and those of your clients.
2. Become familiar with occupational trends and the effect they might have on your client's needs to acquire new skills.

3. Become aware of issues of particular concern to women, e.g. childcare, financial assistance for training, statutes concerning pregnancy leave and sexual harassment.
4. Expand your knowledge of the work place, particularly the environment in non-traditional areas for women.
5. Understand your own approach to risk-taking and that of your clients - what helps and supports risk-taking.
6. Understanding how skills are transferable from traditional to non-traditional occupations.
7. Beware of sex bias in testing and make necessary adjustments in interpreting results.
8. Use group process to facilitate learning and to develop self-help networks.

While women may be more highly motivated to seek wider options today, their new found confidence and daring is often still very shaky. Once having decided to explore new opportunities in the trades or technology, to move into science or engineering, or simply to move out of their traditional work roles into something else, awareness of the real difficulties involved, just begins.

The woman we are counselling may have made her decision to reach out fairly recently for reasons of personal or family crisis or out of a raised consciousness of where she wants to go with her life. Taking full responsibility for her life may still be a frightening prospect. She may be easily discouraged as she learns some of the realities of what is involved:

- Going back to school
- Arranging for child care
- Overcoming anxiety relating to math and science
- Lack of support from family and friends

She may feel absurd and isolated from the support of her personal reference group. The messages are mixed. Caught between wanting to reach out in a new direction, and fearing rejection if she does, she comes to us for support, encouragement and information. Therein lies our dilemma. We want to encourage, but we know there are risks. We want to be objective and yet the facts may be too discouraging. We run the risk of wanting to "rescue" her, to save her from defeat.

In the new Skills Workshop, we present three distinct options. The first: The Direct Discount Approach. This involves statements such as:

What are you out to prove?
You don't know what you're talking about!
You can't be serious.

The second: The Rationale - Protective Approach. This involves statements such as:

It'll be tough;

You'll have to take math;

You'll probably be the only woman/girl in the class.

The third: Cooperative Problem-Solving. Here we have statements such as:

What brings you to this point - tell me more?

Since you're going to do something that many consider to be different, you'll need a support base. Who do you know that you can depend on?

Do you know any women who are presently doing similar work?

What kinds of information do you need?

We all slip in to the first two types of responses from time to time, but the third is admittedly, more difficult. This is facilitating the approach that assumes our client is serious, committed, has potential, and is willing to take responsibility for her decisions. We are not rescuing her, but supporting her. We, who are in the business of career counselling, have the responsibility to really listen to these women, recognize the implications of what they are saying, and encourage them to take risks that will enable them to be full participants in the work place. Another aspect of new skills counselling is the testing tools we use to assist our clients.

In the Spring of 1983, a limited survey of career counsellors in Ontario Educational institutions indicated that a variety of Vocational Tests were being used, and that in high schools, interest tests were used almost exclusively. The survey was conducted by Dr. Lyz Sayer, a Vocational Psychologist, on behalf of the Ontario Women's Bureau. In talking with counsellors, it was found that tests were increasingly being perceived as an essential tool in advising students in their selection of studies and careers. The growing complexity of the labour market, and the current demands on counsellors to direct their efforts toward employment, necessitates the use of tests. It also increases the potential for counsellors to reinforce sex segregation and disparity unless the underlying sex bias in these tests is fully understood.

Following the survey, Sayer conducted extensive research on Vocational Tests being used in Ontario and co-authored the report "Sex Bias in Vocational Testing".

The report, while validating the need for testing, indicated that test results tend to provide a much narrower range of options for women than for men.

The basic assumption upon which a test is structured, its language and content, validating procedures and interpretive measures all are subject to bias that is limiting to both sexes, but is particularly detrimental to women's progress into non-conventional fields of study and work. In fact, vocational testing has tended to perpetuate the message that certain occupations are more appropriate for one sex than for another.

The Canadian Psychological Association had adopted the following definition of Sex Bias:

"Any factor that might influence a person to limit, or might cause others to limit, his or her considerations of a career solely on the basis of gender."

This has been accompanied by the establishment of a set of guidelines for reducing sex bias in the testing process.

In choosing a test, it is advised that the following questions should be asked.

- Is the test current or has it been recently updated? Beware - even new or revised tests can incorporate psychometric data and assumptions dating back over fifty years when some of the first Vocational Tests were developed.
- Have the norms been adequately tested to see if they are equally valid for males and females?
- What is the relative spread of male and female scores across all test categories? Do women score higher in one category and men in another? The manual should provide a rationale for such profiles.
- Are same-sex or combined sex norms used? The manual should provide a rationale for the use of one approach over another.
- Does the manual explain how, in the development of the test, there has been an effort made to eliminate or reduce sex bias?
- Does the test use the generic "He" or "She", and gender specific titles such as policeman instead of police officer. If so this suggests that it may be stongly sex-biased in other areas and/or may also be out of date.

In conclusion, I repeat, today is just a beginning. As vocational counsellors we will need to explore the issues I have raised in greater depth if we are going to be effective in counselling women for the new skills and new opportunities of the future.

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DIRECTIONS: AN OUTLINE OF THE CGCA POSITION PAPER AND RESOURCE BOOK

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BACKGROUND TO THE POSITION PAPER

The history of the counselling practices and programs reflects the changing needs of the general population. As these needs changed every five to ten years, our profession developed from one with a narrow occupational focus that used trait and factor theory as a foundation, moved through a psychotherapeutic period of the 60's and early 70's, and expanded into its present life career development role. Now we stand on the threshold of yet another radical, but exciting and challenging, change in our responsibilities.

Up to this point, counsellors have, by the nature of the environment in which they worked, primarily concerned themselves with school-aged clients. The assumption had been that the ultimate goal of guidance services was to see a student successfully placed in a career; beyond that he would move more or less successfully through to retirement.

All that changed with the impact of the electronic revolution, with the beginning of the Third Wave, Toffler's description for the new society. As Toffler notes in his book, the old economy of production and trading is obsolete and is being replaced by an economy based on information and service. High tech industries are replacing steel, coal, and rubber. The impact of these changes is an accelerating demand for better education, for continual training, and for skills designed to help people cope with change. It is imperative that people in all age groups are taught decision-making skills, self-management skills, inter-personal and human relations skills, and goal-setting and planning skills.

The biggest area that has to change to meet these challenges is education. The Third Wave person will have to be highly educated. Yet a picture of today's student provides a montage of drugs, liberalized sex, vandalism, absenteeism, and unmotivated students who cannot or will not study, for whom everything is boring. That boredom is a cover for the frustration of maturing early and being locked into the constraints of a second wave education, and a cover for a fear of a future for which they are not being prepared. In 1954, 60% of students entering high school achieved a graduation diploma. By 1965, 70-75% achieved their diplomas. This percentage has not changed in twenty years despite an unending list of educational innovations. On the contrary, educators have transformed school from the pursuit of a good to a required defence against personal disaster. Students have to go on; therefore, school is less worthwhile. But 65-70% of high school graduates do not go on. And unemployment rates increase with the amount of education. Over 600,000 of the present Canadians unemployed are in the 15-24 age group.

For the adult population, with rapidly developing technology, it is essential to have continuing education systems. There is a well documented need for skills training. Most workers will change jobs five to ten times during their career. Recurrent education will become an increasing factor in our school system. We will have to look seriously at other alternatives such as job sharing, the redistribution of leisure time, and adult education.

Even the elderly cannot be ignored. As the "baby boom" moves through the aging cycle, there will be increasing numbers of people approaching retirement who will need the skills to cope with the change from productive worker to leisurite.

THE CGCA POSITION PAPER

From a consideration of these factors, our interest was to begin to develop a national policy for guidance. In the paper, we took the position that every Canadian has the right to whatever professional assistance is needed to:

- make effective educational and career plans
- develop skills and competencies necessary to lead productive and satisfying lives.

The paper deals with the needs of all Canadians in each developmental stage, including the needs of special groups. The basic needs were classified as knowledge, skills, and decisions, all three of which are common to all developmental stages from birth to death. Thus we talk about life career development. Individual services were identified and outlined that correspond to these three areas.

DIRECTIONS - THE LIFE CAREER MODELS

In response to the reaction from across the country to the position paper, we wrote, together with Marv Collins, the book, Directions.

Early in the book, we noted that there is a consistency to the needs of all people, that they need help in confronting existential problems that imply a need for decision. To make decisions, every person needs a knowledge base, needs the skills necessary to cope with developmental tasks, and needs to maximize their potentialities and opportunities. Developmental theory was the foundation for these ideas.

Counselling was defined as the process of helping clients develop competencies required to facilitate development. To go with this, Gysbers' definition of guidance was adopted as follows:

> Guidance is an integral and central, but specifically identifiable and accountable, part of the total continuing education process. It is a comprehensive and developmental educational program responsible for

assisting all individuals in developing positive self-concepts, effective human relationships, decision-making competencies, and understanding of current and potential life roles, settings and events; it is also responsible for placement competencies to aid them in the transition from one setting to another. It is also responsible for assisting all individuals to understand the meaning of basic studies and occupational preparation and relate them to their present and future lives.[1]

Throughout the book, reference is continually made to the concept of life career development, that is, self-development over the life-span through the integration of roles, settings, and events, in a person's life. To cope, each person needs life skills. Ten were identified as follows:

- knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses
- ability to use informational resources
- knowledg of educational, occupational, and social lifestyle options
- the ability to choose
- skill in interpersonal relations
- employability skills
- understanding of personal roles
- understanding the interdependence of occupational and educational structures
- time management
- the ability to see oneself as someone of worth and dignity.[2]

The life career model that was used as the framework for the book serves as a template to lay over the top of a current program so that similarities and differences can be seen. In the career model, the individual is conceived as moving along a number of pathways leading to a lifestyle centered on work. The success of that movement is related to competency in life skills. The primary task of counsellors, then, is to help clients develop those competencies.

The model has been outlined in Natcom 5.[3] What we would like to focus on is how the model can be applied to the adult population. The need for guidance and counselling

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1 Norman Gysbers, Improving Guidance Programs. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1981, p. 63.

2 Ed Herr and Stanley Cramer, Career Guidance Through the Life Span. Boston: Little, Brown, and Comapany, 1979, p. 33.

3 David Studd, "Making Decisions - A Developmental Model of Career Education." Natcom 5. Employment and Immigration Canada, 1983.

of adults has grown from the fact that the forty year block of time previously devoted to work will increasingly be broken up by periods of education and leisure. (Fig. 2)

Herr and Cramer have identified four major sub-groups of adults whose interest in career guidance services is likely to increase mid-career changers, women entering or re-entering the labour force after a period of child-rearing, the older worker (those over 45 who face considerable prejudice in terms of hiring and/or retention policies), and pre-retirement adults (or those already retired).[4] The causes of mid-career change are summarized in Table 1.

As noted earlier, developmental theory forms the foundation for any programs in guidance and counselling. Havighurst has identified a number of developmental tasks in three distinct age groups as follows:

18-30
- selecting a mate
- learning to live with partner
- starting a family
- rearing children
- managing a home
- getting started in an occupation
- taking on civic responsibility
- finding a congenial social group

30-55
- achieving adult civic and social responsibility
- establishing and maintaining an economic standard of living
- assisting teen-age children to become responsible and happy adults
- developing adult leisure time activities
- relating to spouse
- accepting change of middle age
- adjusting to aging parents

55-up
- adjusting to decreasing strength and health
- adjusting to retirement and reduced income
- adjusting to death of spouse
- establishing an explicit affiliation with one's age group
- meeting social and civic obligations
- establishing satisfactory physical living arrangements[5]

Identifying concerns and clarifying one's role or roles in each of these stages is as important to adults as it is to adolescents. The process for adults is similar to that of adolescents, the accumulation of knowledge about the inter-relatedness of life roles, settings, and events

4 Herr and Cramer, Career Guidance Through the Life Span, p. 237.

5 R.J. Havighurst, "Youth in Exploration and Man Emergent." In H. Borow (Ed.), Man in a World of Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964.

followed by the choice of appropriate lifestyle options. Unlike students in the public school system, however, adults must accept immediate responsibility for their own career developing.

The life career model (Fig. 1) has application to adults. An alternative, but parallel, model, a decision model has been proposed by Gerstein.[6] He developed a two stage model made up of the anticipation stage, which includes exploration (both internal and external) and crystallization (or decision), and the implementation stage where one acts on the decision. The model has the following substages:

A. Anticipation Stage
   1. Personal exploration (internal)
      a. clarifying values
      b. assessing interests
      c. identifying skills
   2. Situational exploration (external)
      a. developing alternatives
      b. gathering information
      c. assessing alternatives
   3. Crystallization
      a. analyzing the patterns that emerge
      b. ranking and ordering the alternatives
      c. establishing the desired outcomes

B. Implementation Stage
   1. Induction
      a. planning and goal-setting strategies
      b. identification of obstacles and strategies for overcoming them
      c. developing new job search skills
      d. identifying supporting forces
      e. acquiring new role behaviours
      f. developing coping behaviours in the areas of assertion, stress management, and time management
      g. referral for educational advisement or placement services
   2. Integration (Decision is Complete).

Herr and Cramer made the following suggestions regarding planning programs for adults:

1. Goals and objectives should be based on needs.
2. The physical centrability of adult career guidance services and the hours of operation should be well publicized.

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6 M. Gerstein, "Vocational Counselling for Adults in Varied Settings: A Comprehensive View." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 30, No. 4.

3. Adults, particularily middle class adults, tend to be highly motivated. Counsellors must capitalize on this motivation.
4. Adults insist on concrete programs.
5. Bases on which they make decisions are similar to students.
6. System design must be used.
7. Specificity is the keynote of planning.
8. Planning must take into consideration family implications.
9. Many adults simply want information.[7]

The goals of the adult program can be dealt with through the following life themes:[8]

- occupational
- personal-functional (self-development)
- financial-acquisitive
- local-residential
- marital-familial
- parental-familial
- recreational-social
- religious-humanism
- service

Once broad goals and life theme areas have been identified, the next step is to develop aims for each major developmental task and specific behavioural objectives for each aim. What follows are some examples of aims for each of the four main sub-groups.

A. Mid-Career Shifters
   1. To help clients explore the reasons for making the career shift.
   2. To help clients organize all the necessary information related to the change.
   3. To help clients assess the consequences of the decision.
   4. To help clients develop effective job-seeking behaviours.
   5. To help clients clarify their abilities, interests, and personal characteristics.
   6. To help clients locate a suitable placement.

B. Women
   1. To reinforce positive feelings of self-worth.

7 Herr and Cramer, Career Guidance Through the Life Span, p. 245

8 David J. Drum and Howard E. Figher, Outreach in Counselling. Cranston, R.I.: The Carroll Press, 1976, p. 155.

2. To help clients acquire all necessary information needed to facilitate career decisions.
3. To help clients explore changes in lifestyle brought on by job re-entry.
4. To help clients assess the advantages and disadvantages of working full-time or part-time.
5. To help clients deal with discrimination.
6. To provide specialized experiences such as assertiveness training.
7. To explore entry level jobs together with educational requirements.
8. To assist clients with placement.

C. The Older Worker
1. To provide support in maintaining feelings of worth and dignity.
2. To explore retraining possibilities.
3. To provide all information required to facilitate the transition to a new job and a new lifestyle.
4. To help clients clarify the reason for employment difficulties.
5. To help clients clarify their values.
6. To help clients assess their present state of motivation, their expectations, and their self-image.
7. To assist clients to develop appropriate job-seeking behaviour.
8. To assist with placement.

D. Pre-retirement
1. To assist clients in planning for retirement.
2. To help clients clarify their feelings about retirement.
3. To make referrals to appropriate community agencies.

Programs for adults, that grow from these objectives, must be based on the decision-making model and activities must have coherence, order, and desired outcomes. What follows are examples of comprehensive career development programs for each group of adults.

1. Gerstein's Model
Gerstein (1982) suggested the following example as one which could be used by a college, university, agency or business and which could be adapted to meet the needs of particular groups of adults.
2. Community Career Resource Centres
Logan,[9] in describing the Halifax Life Planning and Learning Centre, outlined six major services as follows:

9 Kathryn Logan, "Mid-Life Career Changes Program in Halifax", UCPA Journal, 1982, XVI-III, p. 12-14.

TABLE 1

Model for Promulgating Comprehensive Career Guidance Programs

STAGE 1: ANTICIPATION

Personal Exploration	Situational Exploration	Crystallization
1. Computer Programs	1. Computer Programs	1. Computer Programs
2. Interest Inventories	2. Individual Counselling	2. Individual Counselling
3. Aptitude Testing	3. Career Exploration Class/Workshop	3. Career Class/Workshop focusing on decision making
4. Individual Class/Workshop	4. Interview people in relevant settings	4. Utilization of Career Library
5. Career Exploration Class/Workshop	5. Utilization of career library and materials	

STAGE 2: IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction	Integration
1. Computer Programs	1. Groups and Workshops on topics to occupational success
2. Career Class/Workshop focusing on job search skills, problem solving and acquiring new role behaviour	2. On-the-job training
3. Class/Workshop in assertion training, time management, stress management, etc.	3. Return for counselling services
4. Educational Advising	
5. Job Placement	

a. assessment
b. information for career and life planning
c. workshop on career planning, life skills for re-entry, lifelong education and leisure, and creative job search
d. referrals to community agencies
e. advising
f. consultation services to businesses and offices wishing to involve employees in career and life planning.

3. Career Guidance Programs in the Work Place

Knowdell (1982) describes a career guidance program in the work place, specifically one being offered to the 7,000 employees at the Livermore National Laboratory in California. The program at Livermore has three components - a career information centre, individual career planning counselling, and career assessment workshops. The workshops cover the following topics:

a. overview of career planning
b. 2-day assessment focusing on values, clarifications, interest assessment, and decision-making.
c. structured interview on specific behaviours involved in past achievements
d. skill identification and work-styles
e. information gathering
f. career strategy planning[10]

4. Programs for the Unemployed

The Occupational and Career Analysis Development (OCAD) Branch of Employment and Immigration Canada have developed a variety of programs for use with their clients such as Moving On, Creating a Career, and Place. These programs have application to adults in a variety of settings.

5. Pre-retirement Programs

Models are an important factor in learning original behaviour. However older adults often have had no role models since earlier generations had a shorter life span. Adults approaching retirement will have difficulty coping until they have been helped to develop a new lifestyle suited to their needs and their state of health.

The Career Resources Branch, Alberta Advanced Education and Manpower, have attempted to meet this need by developing "A Matter of Time", a pre-retirement education program. The purpose of the program is to provide individuals 40 years of age and older with the necessary information and appropriate life-planning, problem-solving and decision-making skills:

10 Knowdell. R. "Comprehensive career guidance in the work place.

- to prepare for a satisfying retirement lifestyle
- to establish and maintain a positive attitude toward retirement
- to develop personal pre-retirement planning goals

Program Plan

Session 1
Introduction to Retirement Planning (2 hours)
The importance of advance planning for retirement is stressed in this session.

Session 2
The Aging Process (2 hours)
This session offers an opportunity to compare attitudes toward aging and to examine common myths and misconceptions about retirement and the aging process.

Session 3
Health (2 hours)
The practices and attitudes that contribute to maintaining good health for retirement are discussed in this session.

Session 4
Housing (3 hours)
Key factors in planning for living arrangements during retirement are considered in this session.

Session 5
Financial Planning (3 hours)
In this session, the need for careful estate planning, financial planning and money management (both before and after retirement) are examined.

Session 6
Management of Unscheduled Time (2 hours)
This session deals with attitudes toward unscheduled time and explores the activities to which discretionary time can be applied.

Session 7
Relationships (2 hours)
The importance of continued relationships with other people is examined in this session.

6. Vocational Rehabilitation Programs
   A variety of vocational rehabilitation programs exist which have as their main objectives evaluation, retraining, work adjustment, job placement, and programs of work activity.

COUNSELLOR COMPETENCIES AND TRAINING

If counsellors are to meet the needs of their clients and hope to help them develop competencies through these programs, tney themselves must have developed a number of

competencies. Competency is a generic word that represents three levels of functioning:

- knowledge
- attitudes
- performance skills.

Thus counsellors need in-depth knowledge, appropriate attitudes, and effective skills in a variety of areas. The Association of Counsellor Education and Supervision have identified fifteen areas as follows:[11]

- career and human development theory and research
- career information resources
- career assessment strategies
- individual and group counselling practices
- career decision-making processes
- job placement services
- unique career development needs of special clientele groups
- sexism and racism
- roles that lifestyle and leisure play in career development
- consultation strategies
- interrelatedness of career decisions and life roles
- program development
- organizational development and change processes
- program evaluation techniques
- educational trends and state and federal legislation.

Similarily, the Ontario School Counsellors' Association, through the work of a committee chaired by George King, identified seven critical areas of competencies as follows:

- competency in meeting the career development needs common to all clients
- competency in meeting the unique career development needs of special target groups
- competency in utilizing community resources
- competency in systems design and evaluation
- competency in using and evaluating interpersonal intervention techniques
- competency in maintaining and improving the educational system and its environment
- competency in making effective use of computer technology.

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[11] Association for Counsellor Education and Supervision: Position Paper on Counsellor Preparation for Career Development/Career Education. Washington, D.C.: The Association, April, 1976, P. 10-11.

As the needs of people seeking counselling change, so do the training needs of professional counsellors. Counsellors will have well-developed competencies in some of the areas noted above. In other areas, however, counsellors will have to upgrade their knowledge and skills. And it would appear to be the responsibility of professional organizations to offer in-depth professional development workshops either through annual conferences or by means of workshops offered throughout the year. CGCA, for example has developed a system of continuing education credits to encourage its members to continually upgrade.

Figure 3 outlines a model for professional development. The point, of course, of professional upgrading is not to earn degrees or accumulate CEU's, but to remain accountable both to the profession and to the public.

THE NEED FOR POLITICAL ACTIVISM

Accountability goes beyond upgrading and evaluation; it also involves attempting to influence government policy. Herr and Pinson point out that:

> ...guidance and counselling as forms of deliberate intervention and advocacy will be necessary in the future to mediate between the individual and the multiple challenges of learning, job training, information processing, interpersonal relations, and self-identity that are likely to characterize the next decade.[12]

Government policy is based on a set of assumptions about the conditions needing change as well as the actions that will change them. The fact that regulations related to counselling, in the broad sense, are scattered across a variety of government ministries and departments is mute testimony to the effectiveness of counsellors and the opinion held by politicians of our competencies.

In addition to asserting control of our training, we must become politically active. Through lobbying, we must outline the part we can play in shaping policies designed to meet social needs.

Three barriers to political activism appear to exist. The first, a societal barrier, assumes that counselling and politics are incompatible. And yet we feel we have competencies as consultants and change agents. The second, an institutional barrier, implies that pressure exists for us to conform. But this leads to a paradox for our refusal to lobby for needed change is usually followed by resistance to change because we were not consulted. The third is self-imposed. In one on one counselling, we have become isolated. Professionally we are the same since we tend only to talk to each other.

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12 Edwin L. Herr and Nancy M. Pinson (editors), Foundations for Policy in Guidance and Counselling. APGA, 1982, P. 3.

The intersection of social trends with policy is not accidental. We must outline the part we can play in shaping policies responsible for social trends.

The challenge to counsellors seems to be too enormous, too complex to be effectively confronted. However, to begin the process of political activity the following ten major action areas may help in reducing the mountain to a series of foothills, more readily crossed by the novice lobbyist.

1. Legislation is needed, designed to coordinate the efforts of the various helping professions. To this end, it is proposed the CGCA officially become the umbrella organization for all guidance and counselling associations and be given a charter recognizing this authority.
2. Counsellor training must be standardized across Canada. This can be accomplished by specifying in a minimal competency level for all service procedures. Further, the counsellor education curriculum must be continually evaluated and adjusted to meet needs.
3. The professional associations must be given the authority to regulate the profession including the issues of training, professional development, and ethical conduct.
4. Counsellors must create political coalitions with authority figures in the community both individual and group. Either alone, or together with these authority figures, counsellors must take a public stand on social, educational, and politicial issues. They must promote legislation based on documented needs.
5. Counsellors must lobby for financial appropriations for the following:
   a) career centres in every community
   b) adult learners
   c) cooperative education
   d) exceptional clients
   e) mental health programs
   f) computer technology in guidance
   g) staffing the school guidance officer as the community counselling office.

   Finally, counsellors should encourage a cost-effectiveness study of guidance and counselling.
6. Legislation is needed to encourage, or if necessary force, business and industry to train skilled tradesmen, to actively participate in cooperative education programs, and to become involved in an exchange program with counsellors.
7. Legislation is needed to facilitate the development of peer counselling networks and the training of peer counsellors.

8. Research is needed into the effects of counselling and life skills on all groups. For example, early indications suggest that life skills education has a positive impact on the recidivism rate of prison inmates.
9. National and provincial policies should reflect goals, and the potential of guidance programs to help clients reach the goals, with respect to the transition from school to work, career development, planning, and decision-making, mental health, and rehabilitation.
10. Government policy should be based on the guidance model proposed in this publication.

It is important the counsellors as a group become rebels - to ensure the implementation of a comprehensive career education and guidance model, to ensure the development of effective counsellor competencies, and to ensure a credible professional image that will influence the formation of policies designed to ease Canada's citizens successfully into the post industrial society.

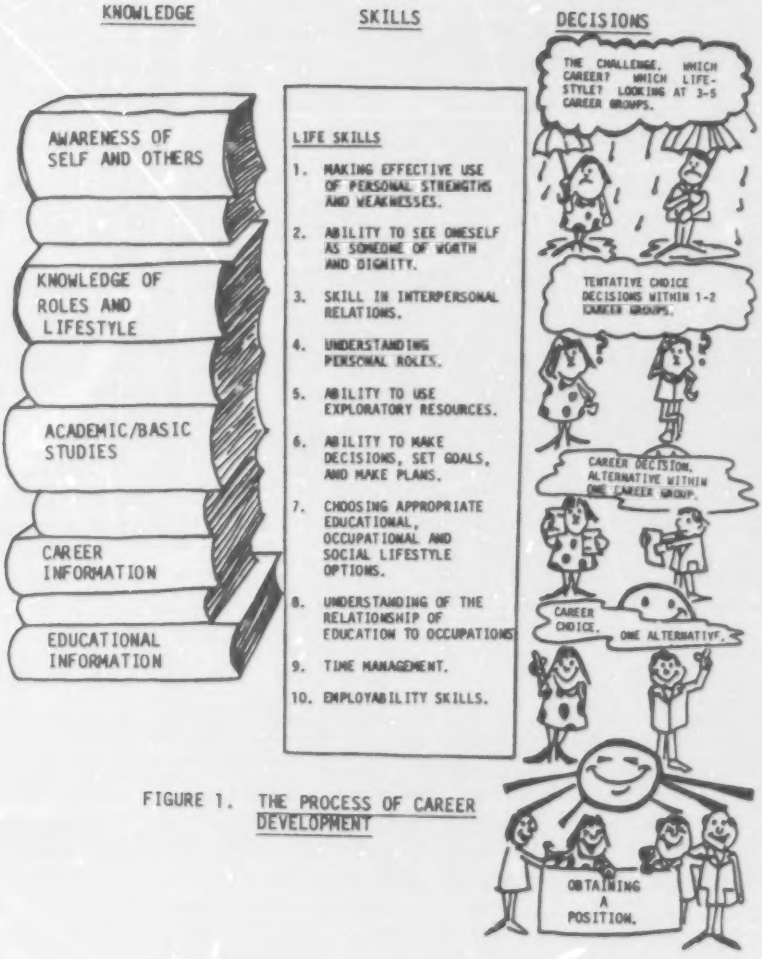
KNOWLEDGE
SKILLS
DECISIONS
AWARENESS OF SELF AND OTHERS
KNOWLEDGE OF ROLES AND LIFESTYLE
ACADEMIC/BASIC STUDIES
CAREER INFORMATION
EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION
LIFE SKILLS
1. MAKING EFFECTIVE USE OF PERSONAL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES.
2. ABILITY TO SEE ONESELF AS SOMEONE OF WORTH AND DIGNITY.
3. SKILL IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS.
4. UNDERSTANDING PERSONAL ROLES.
5. ABILITY TO USE EXPLORATORY RESOURCES.
6. ABILITY TO MAKE DECISIONS, SET GOALS, AND MAKE PLANS.
7. CHOOSING APPROPRIATE EDUCATIONAL, OCCUPATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFESTYLE OPTIONS.
8. UNDERSTANDING OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF EDUCATION TO OCCUPATIONS
9. TIME MANAGEMENT.
10. EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS.
THE CHALLENGE. WHICH CAREER? WHICH LIFE-STYLE? LOOKING AT 3-5 CAREER GROUPS.
TENTATIVE CHOICE DECISIONS WITHIN 1-2 CAREER GROUPS.
CAREER DECISION. ALTERNATIVE WITHIN ONE CAREER GROUP.
CAREER CHOICE.
ONE ALTERNATIVE.
OBTAINING A POSITION.

FIGURE 1. THE PROCESS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

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Lynn Hall,

"NEW MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES"
from address made to OSCA
Annual Conference, 1982, Figure 2.

NEW PATTERN OF INDIVIDUAL COPING

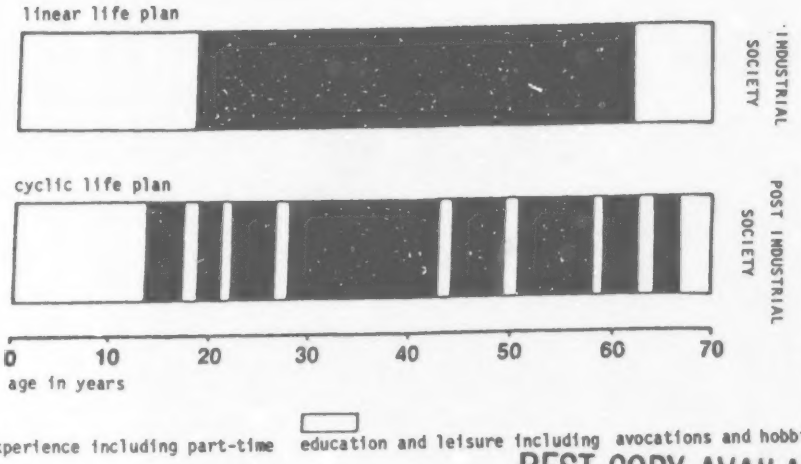

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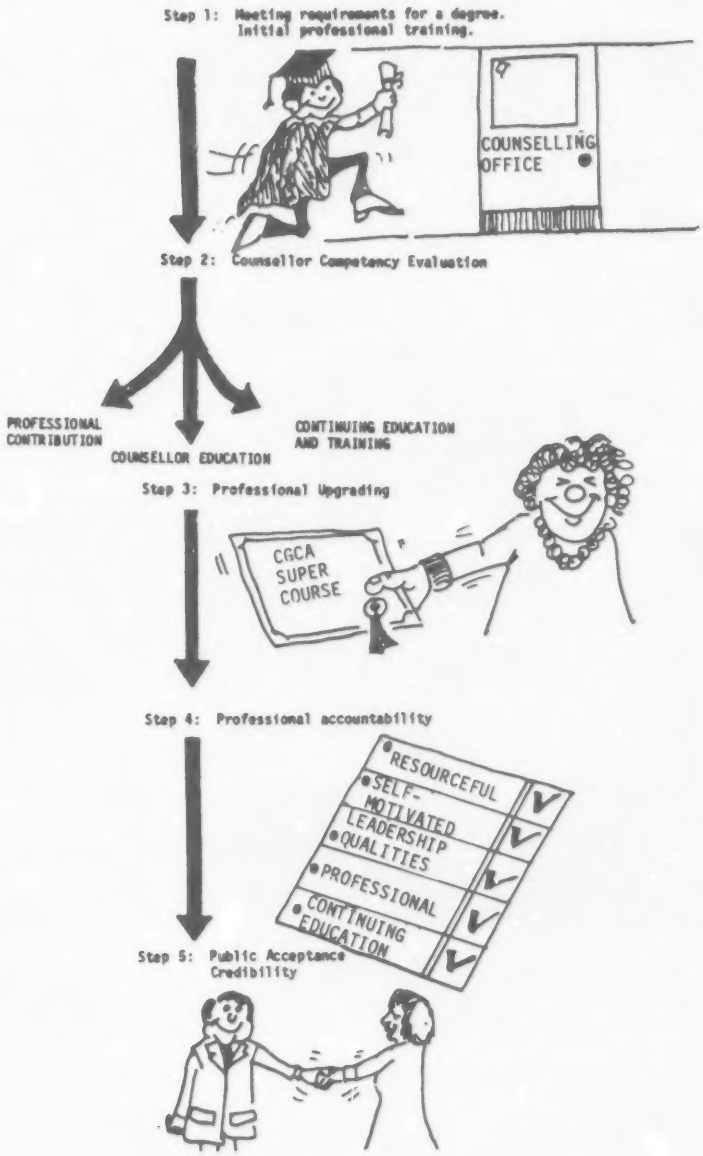
FIGURE 3: MODEL FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT



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COUNSELLING THE UNEMPLOYED: Employment Service Strategies in Connection with the Closure of a Large Company of Great Importance to a Local Labour Market - The Swedish Experiment

Oswald Bratfisch, Director, Swedish Labour Market Board

BACKGROUND

The closing-down or major reduction of the operations of companies of great importance to a local labour market has become an increasing problem during recent years, especially in industrial countries.

In such a situation three phenomena usually appear that make it difficult to solve the labour market problems for those concerned.

1) The decision to close down or curtail the operations comes "suddenly". Support systems are not prepared to take action when the decision is announced. The "actors " are taken by surprise.
2) There is a lack of co-ordination regarding the activities different "actors" undertake.
3) There is a lack of systematic work-methods which are based on theory and practical experience.

ad (1) This has to do with the company and others involved being unwilling to reveal facts at an early stage of the process for various reasons. There are often very distinct signs of closure or cutback a long time before the actual decision is made but there is nothing concrete to justify action-planning and/or -taking from the viewpoint of the support systems. Even a support system like the employment-agency usually keeps a low profile - money is short and there is a staff shortage. Action-planning itself takes away resources that are badly needed for other purposes. So, let's wait and see, maybe there won't be any closure after all.

ad (2) The time for action-planning is very short for all of the "actors". It starts when the decision is officially announced - and then everybody is in a hurry. The "actors" are supposed to take action immediately. There is simply not time enough to co-ordinate one's own line of action with whatever other actors do as a result of everybody's honest intent to deliver support as soon as possible.

ad (3) Most of those actually delivering support, i.e. the grass-roots as we call them in Sweden, have not had any previous experience of a similar situation. The lack of experience, the pressure of time and the fact that useful documentation, giving concrete guidelines for possible actions, is not ready at hand lead to a "pragmatic" attitude. (Our situation is different, we will have to work out our own solution). That usually means: Let's get started and then we will see, which is probably not the most efficient way to handle the situation.

THE ACTUAL SITUATION

In June 1981, the decision was made to close down a ship-building yard that had a total of 2322 employees. The liquidation was to be effected gradually and be completed within two years. The yard was of vital importance to the local labour market, but was also essential for the regional one, as many small companies in the region were subcontractors of the yard.

The government provided financial support for various purposes:

- The yard received SEK 140 m (about U.S.D. 20M) so that it could discharge its "old" contracts.
- SEK 14 m (about U.S.D. 2M) were given to a financing company in order to stimulate new start-ups in the region.
- The employment agency was given SEK 1 m (about U.S.D. 180) for additional staff corresponding to 6 persons during this two-year period.

To facilitate your understanding of the actions which took place I will have to give a short description of the rules that are generally to be followed in connection with cutbacks in Sweden. These rules apply both to the public sector and to private enterprise.

* EMPLOYERS ARE TO NOTIFY THE REGIONAL EMPLOYMENT BOARD OF CUTBACKS INVOLVING FIVE OR MORE EMPLOYEES.
* PERIODS OF NOTICE VARY, DEPENDING PARTLY ON WHETHER IT IS A MATTER OF TEMPORARY LAY-OFFS OR DEFINITE DISMISSALS AND PARTLY ON THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES CONCERNED. FOR EXAMPLE, NOTICE OF FINAL DISMISSAL MUST BE GIVEN AT LEAST SIX MONTHS IN ADVANCE IF MORE THAN 100 EMPLOYEES ARE CONCERNED.
* VERIFICATION OF THE CAUSES AND KIND OF FINAL DISMISSALS OR TEMPORARY LAY-OFFS MUST BE GIVEN TOGETHER WITH THE NOTICE. FURTHERMORE THE DATE WHEN IT TAKES EFFECT HAS TO BE STATED AS WELL AS THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES CONCERNED, WITH BREAKDOWNS BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS.
* IF MAJOR CUTBACK IS INVOLVED A CONSULTATIVE GROUP HAS TO BE ESTABLISHED - INCLUDING REPRESENTATIVES OF THE EMPLOYER, THE EMPLOYEES, THE REGIONAL EMPLOYMENT BOARD, AND THE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL.

None of the support forces, which I call "actors", knew beforehand at what time the definite decision would be made or what the concrete content of the decision would be. In other words there was not much to go on as far as advance action-planning was concerned.

Thus, in line with the above mentioned rules, in immediate connection with the closure decision, about 6 months before the first dismissals, a consultative group was formed. The group consisted of representatives from the

employer(s), the trade unions, the Municipal Council and the Employment Service, and was required to provide mutual communication on plans and measures.

The following main "actors" directly delivering various kinds of support to the employees appeared on the scene:

* A SPECIAL SUPPORT ORGANIZATION WAS FOUNDED: IT CONSISTED OF STAFF FROM THE COMPANY'S PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT AND FROM THE TRADE UNIONS. AN AGREEMENT WAS MADE BETWEEN THIS ORGANIZATION AND THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE.
* THE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY ESTABLISHED A SPECIAL OFFICE AT THE YARD, COMPLETE WITH SPECIAL RESOURCES FOR COUNSELLING AND TRAINING BY MEANS OF A WORKING-TEAM FROM AN EMPLOYABILITY ASSESSMENT INSTITUTE, ARBETS-MARKNADSINSTITUT - A M I*.
* THE LOCAL MUNICIPAL AUTHORITIES MADE A COUNSELLOR, SPECIALIZED IN EDUCATIONAL ISSUES, AVAILABLE TO THE SPECIAL SUPPORT ORGANIZATION.

Of course, there were also other organizations lending various kinds of support but the above mentioned were the ones specially established to deal with the employees' situation. Consultancy conferences were arranged for all personnel direclty concerned with the implementation of activities. Methodology, work models and organizational issues were discussed.

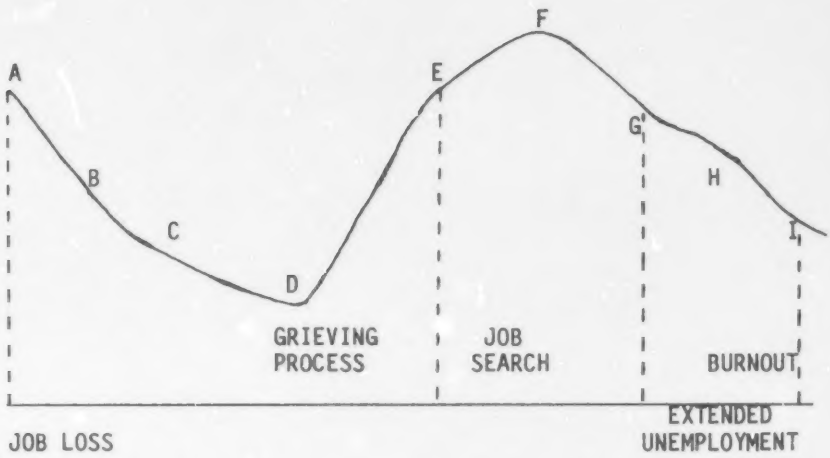
A General Model for the Degree of Involvement in and kind of Psychological Reaction to Future Unemployment

To start with, the theoretical frame of reference for the discussion concerning when and how the actors should intervene was the model proposed by Amundson and Borgen (1982) which concerns the dynamics of unemployment.

This model is widely known to most counsellors, certainly to you in Canada, and so, I won't go into any details here.

Now the question we were asking ourselves was: Would this model hold in our specific situation? Our clients were not yet unemployed, they just knew that they would be in the future. To some of them it would happen 3-6 months ahead, while to others it would not happen for 2 years. How do people react in a situation like that? How motivated are they to deal with a problem that is, at least to some of them, far ahead? How does age influence people's behaviour in this situation?

* There are 81 Employability Assessment Institutes (AMI) in Sweden. These institutes are responsible for Vocational Rehabilitation within the Swedish Employment Service.



Job Loss/Grieving Process
- A--Denial
- B--Anger
- C--Bargaining
- D--Depression
- E--Acceptance

Job Search/Burnout
- F--Enthusiasm
- G--Stagnation
- H--Frustration
- I--Apathy

Fig 1: THE DYNAMICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT according to Amundson and Borgen. The graph is reproduced from INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYMENT COUNSELLING - a systematic approach (Employment and Immigration Canada, 1982).

From verbal reports by colleagues that had experienced similar situations earlier, we learned that there seems to be a general phenomena in support of at least two phases in Amundson and Borgen's model, namely denial and anger. People seem not to accept that they will be unemployed in the near future. They believe that SOMEBODY IS GOING TO MAKE SOMETHING POSITIVE HAPPEN. The government, the union, the company itself etc. All small signs - like a newspaper report of talks between government and the unions concerning a possible alternative solution to a complete closure - are taken as strong indicators that the problem will be solved shortly. In other words, there is a strong belief that everything will be OK, a clearcut denial of the facts. People are still angry, often aggressive in their contacts, for example with a counsellor, and not motivated to gear their energy towards constructive moves. They lack self-responsibility - it is not their fault that this situation has occurred and therefore somebody responsible, should do something.

That was the general picture we got from our colleagues. However, in excess of what we had learned from Hayes and Nutman (1981) on "The psychological effects of unemployment", we also dug up some "home-based" scientific sources of information that indirectly validated the previously mentioned verbal reports. At the Psychological Laboratories

of the University of Stockholm, Sweden, a series of investigations were conducted during the late sixties and early seventies regarding emotional involvement in anticipated future events as a function of subjective and objective temporal distance to those future events. (E.g. Ekman & Lundberg, 1971; Lundberg, von Wright, Frankenhaeuser & Olson, 1974; Lundberg, von Wright Frankenhaeuser & Olson, 1975; Lundberg, von Wright & Olson, 1975). The potential future events varied in importance and desirability and different methods of scaling were used. The general result of these studies was the same: involvement decreased with increasing temporal distance from an event. The relation is usually described by a simple exponential function.

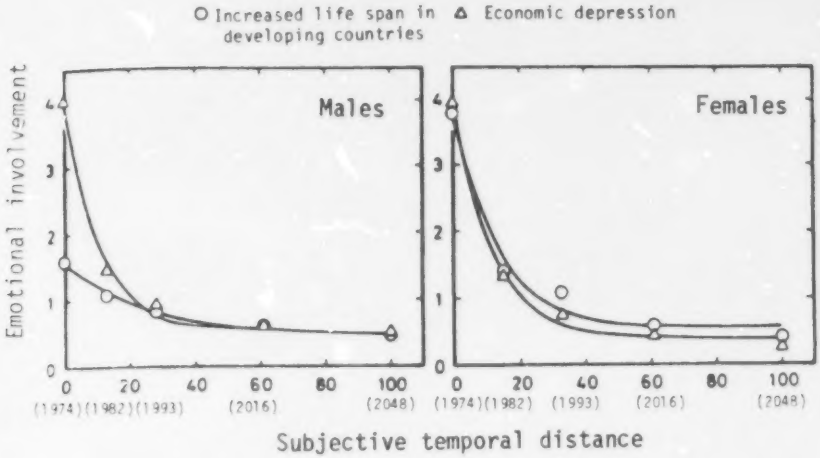


Fig 2: Intensity of involvement in two potential future events as a function of subjective temporal distance as estimated by males and females.

Despite the fact that these results were gained from laboratory experiments with artificial stimuli settings that differed somewhat from our real life problem, we assumed that they would by and large be valid for our situation. Adding the verbal reports of our colleagues we said: In the beginning people will generally have a high degree of emotional involvement consisting mainly of anger, frustration and denial with no energy left over for actions to solve their problem.

From the results of another theoretical study we concluded what would be likely to happen, shortly before the point of unemployment is reached. Lundberg and Ekman (1970) studied during a period of 23 days the emotional reaction of students to an examination taking place at the end of the period. The results showed that emotional involvement increased at an accelerated rate as subjective time before the examination decreased.

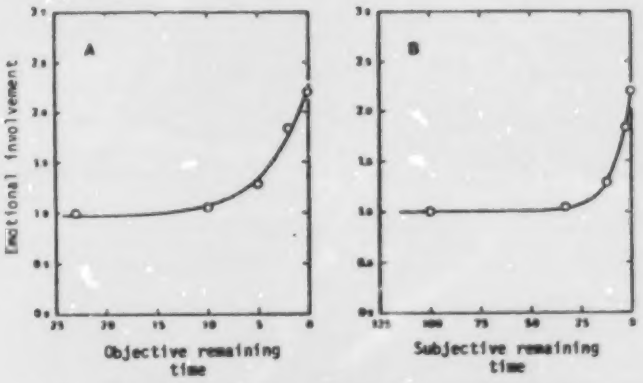


Fig 3: Emotional involvement plotted against (A) objective and (B) subjective remaining time. The curves fitted to the data represent simple exponential functions. The fit is better in Diagram B, indicating that the exponential function describes an intrapsychological rather than stimulus-response relation.

Again we disregarded the fact that these results were gained in a laboratory experiment with considerable differences from our real-life situation.

Combining all the sources of information available the following model was proposed:

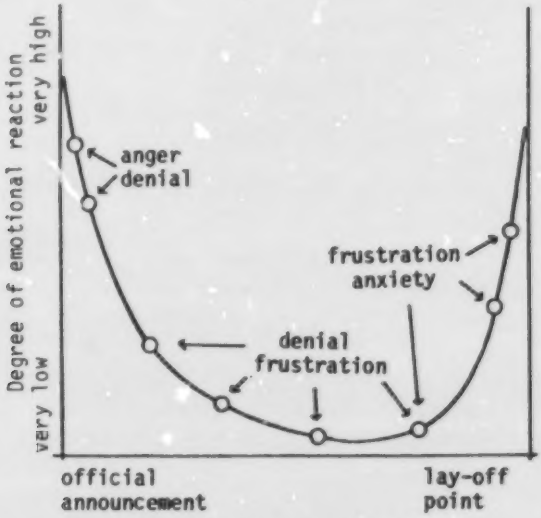


Fig 4: A general model for the degree and kind of emotional reaction for the period between notice and lay-off.

When the point of the future lay-off is officially announced, people will in general show a high degree of emotional involvement consisting mainly of negative reactions like anger, frustration and denial. All energy is channeled towards those negative reactions, no steps are taken towards a solution of the future problems. As time goes by, the intensity of the emotional reaction will

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decrease and eventually become very low. Still no problem solving steps are taken. Shortly before the actual point of lay-off is reached, emotional involvement will increase at an accelerated rate.

As this model is a general one, it naturally does not take into account individual differences concerning psychological reactions. From, among others, Hayes and Nutman (1981) and a number of Swedish reports, including Angelow (1983, in Swedish only) we predicted that we would find three main categories:

- the more or less unaffected; predominantly young professional with a high market value and older persons who have accepted an early retirement pension
- the affected; predominantly early middle-aged persons of all professional categories
- the highly worried: predominantly later middle-aged non-professionals, immigrants and disabled persons.

Thus we decided: the point of intervention should be as close as possible to the point where people get to know that they will be laid off. The intervention should start off with trying to channel the high emotional involvement towards positive psychological reactions. The key-concept should be: change negative psychological reactions, i.e. channel energy toward problem solving and keep the degree of involvement at a high level. Individual differences concerning psychological reactions should be taken into account for through a problem-identifying interview from which an individual action-plan would emerge.

As a "change of attitudes" is not easily accomplished, we started off with intensive "marketing" in which all the "actors" were strongly involved. Booklets describing what kind of support there was available were produced and distributed to all employees. Information meetings were held and individual appointments were made.

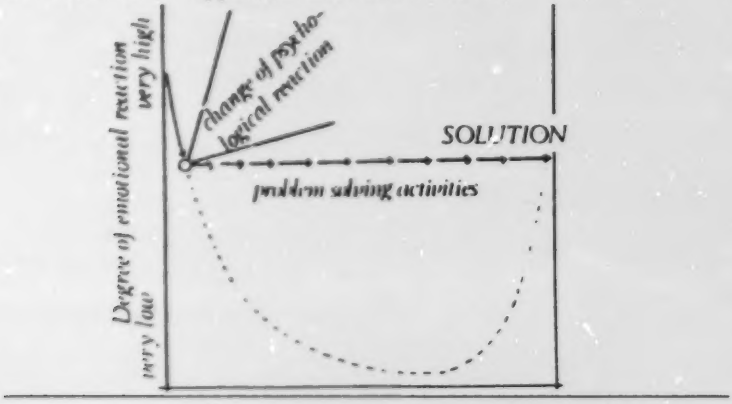

Fig 5: A general model for the point and kind of intervention when notice of future dismissal has been given.

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The "campaign" resulted in almost all employees voluntarily making use of the support systems in one way or the other. Some of those who approached the employment service were - as a result of the problem identifying interview - geared to a special program which was conducted by the working team from the Employability Assessment Institute. The special program was as follows:

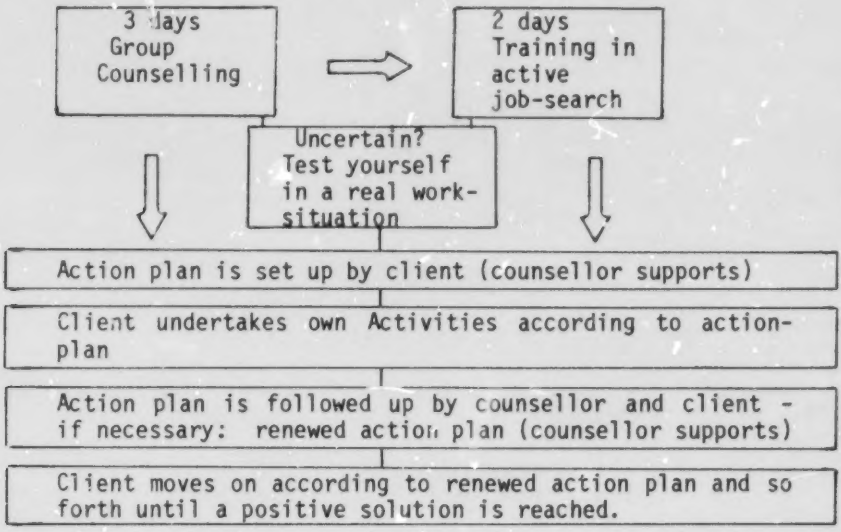

3 days
Group
Counselling
2 days
Training in
active
job-search
Uncertain?
Test yourself
in a real work-
situation
Action plan is set up by client (counsellor supports)
Client undertakes own Activities according to action-plan
Action plan is followed up by counsellor and client - if necessary: renewed action plan (counsellor supports)
Client moves on according to renewed action plan and so forth until a positive solution is reached.

Fig 6: The model for employment counselling and training applied by the working team of the Employability Assessment Institute.

Counselling was naturally also done individually during the whole process and as an alternative to group counselling when necessary. Moreover psychological assessment, testing etc, were performed when required.

The group counselling program consisted of specially designed lessons concerning:

* PSYCHOLOGICAL REACTIONS TO CRISIS-SITUATIONS
* THOUGHTS ABOUT WORK AND UNEMPLOYMENT
* POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EXPERIENCES WITH THE PRESENT JOB
* ANALYSE YOUR INTERESTS AND PREFERENCES
* TO MOVE OR NOT TO MOVE?
* YOU KNOW A LOT OF THINGS AND YOU CAN DO LOT OF THINGS - LET YOUR FUTURE EMPLOYER KNOW ABOUT THEM - WRITE YOUR OWN CURRICULUM VITAE
* WHAT KIND OF LABOUR MARKET IS THERE FOR YOU? HOW ABOUT TAKING UP STUDIES AGAIN?
* WHAT RETRAINING POSSIBILITIES ARE THERE?

* WHERE IS THE SUPPORT YOU NEED TO BE FOUND? DO NOT FORGET THAT YOU HAVE A FAMILY AND FRIENDS!
* MAKE YOUR OWN ACTION PLAN!

Training in active job search consisted of lessons concerning:

* MY PLUS POINTS
* THE JOB RÉSUMÉ
* HOW TO APPLY FOR A JOB IN WRITING - COMPLETING THE APPLICATION FORM
* THE TELEPHONE-CONTACT
* THE JOB-INTERVIEW
* WHAT TO ASK THE INTERVIEWER
* WHERE ARE JOBS TO BE FOUND?

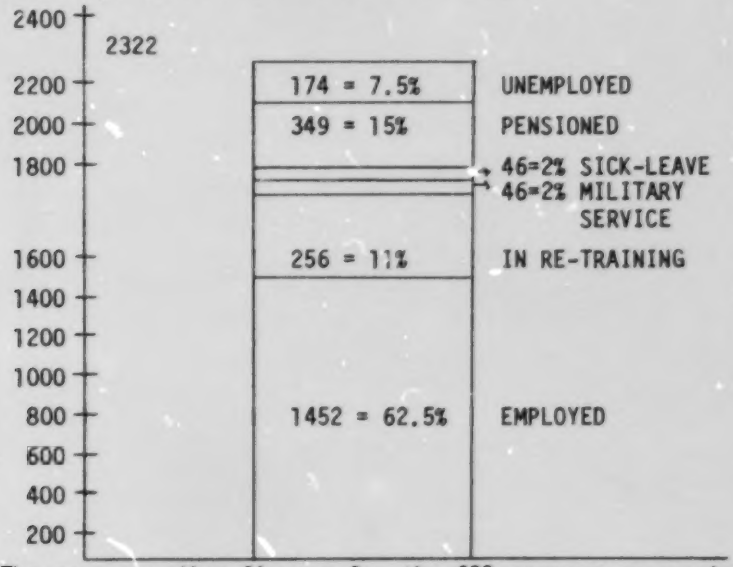
Clients still uncertain about their occupational choice after individual and/or group counselling, were given the opportunity of "testing" whether their "theoretical" reasoning (or which of the possible choices) would hold in reality. These "trial" periods on a job could last between one and three weeks and varied from one to three trials on an average.

After the individual and/or group counselling (in some cases followed by the "test" period in a real work situation) and/or the training in active job-search the clients (together with the counsellor) drew up an action plan, i.e. it was agreed what steps the client should take in order to reach a positive solution to his situation. A follow-up appointment was made with each client serving the purpose of (a) continued support by the counsellor and b) revising the action plan if necessary. This procedure was repeated until either a solution was reached or the client felt that no further support from the counsellor was necessry, i.e. when the client felt that he/she could manage by him/herself.

I will not talk about the counselling theory and the pedagogical approach underlying our work-model. You are most certainly familiar with CEIC's "Individual Employment Counselling; a Systematic Approach" (1982), "The Assessment Component for Employment Counselling" (1981) and "Counselling Adults for Decision-Making" (1981). The ideas presented here are by and large our basis as well. This is not very surprising: we were lucky enough to have Stue Conger and Vance Peavy as ambassadors and teachers a couple of times in Sweden. I'd like to take the opportunity of honouring them on this occasion and thanking them and CEIC for the very valuable contribution made to our organization. Thank you very much indeed.

Results

In August 1981, 2,322 persons were given notice.
In August 1983, their labour market status was:



The corresponding figures for the 600 persons or so who participated in the special program conducted by the team of the Employability Assessment Institutes were by and large the same. It should, however, be noticed that, for various reasons, those clients had more pronounced difficulties in the labour market than was the case with the rest of the group.

From the view point of the Swedish Labour Market Authorities these results are remarkable. They are most likely due to the combined efforts of the various support systems. But moreover, and above all, these results must, in our opinion, be viewed in the light of the fact that the Swedish Government had allocated considerable resources to encourage replacement industrial start-ups.

Recommendations

I would like to finish this paper by pointing out to you what kind of general recommendations we are making for future events of the kind I have been relating. I am aware that the general conditions, laws and policies, etc., that apply in Sweden differ from other countries, which certainly makes some of our findings inapplyable elsewhere. However, you might find one or two points useful.

Our main recommendations are:

- Draw up an action plan, define goals and policies; decide on theoretical frame of reference, work methods and instruments.
- Co-ordinate your plans with the other support systems.

- Try to reach an agreement with the other "actors" on common policies, co-operation, division of action and a common starting point for intervention.
- Engage the most skillful and the most experienced staff you have got - it's a demanding task.
- Arrange, together with the other "actors" conferences for all staff directly involved in the practical work before action is taken, and hold regular seminars thereafter.
- Make a survey of all employers concerned.
- Apply the same working hours to your staff as the clients have.
- Make use of the company's administration, especially the personnel-department.
- Co-operate with the trade unions, make use of the unions' knowledge of their members.
- Try to get an office for your staff at the company - that applies to the other actors as well.
- Start the intervention at the earliest point possible.

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BRIDGING THE GAP: COOPERATIVE EDUCATION...CAREER EDUCATION

Keith Coviello, President, Sask. Career/Work Education Ass.
Hank Froese, President, Ont. Cooperative Education Ass.
Jim O'Connor, Teacher-Coordinator, Board of Education
Vi Trivett, Vice-President, Career/Work Education Ass.

A. CAREER EDUCATION

Kenneth Hoyt defined career education as: "An effort aimed at refocusing American education and the actions of the broader community in ways that will help individuals acquire and utilize the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for each to make work a meaningful, productive, and satisfying part of his or her way of living."

Implications

1. Career Education is rooted in the term "work".
2. Career education is an effort intended to be applicable to all persons at all age levels - including all kinds of educational settings.
3. Career education is an effort that demands the joint participation of the education systems and the broader community. Career education cannot be accomplished by either party by itself.
4. The term "work" describes unpaid as well as paid activities.

Dr. Gerry Sankey, Professor of Career Education, University of Saskatchewan, states: "Career education is an ongoing process that extends from infancy through adulthood. If career education is to be effectively promoted, it should not be programmed as an isolated course in the school curriculum but rather it needs to be infused into the entire school offering."

In Summary

What? A Process
Who? All students
When? Throughout the school tenure

B. DOES COOPERATIVE EDUCATION COMPLEMENT CAREER EDUCATION?

Answer: "Yes". Rationale: I will cite only three - but each has mutltiple "spin-offs".

1. Cooperative education is the practicum to career education.
2. Cooperative education involves Hoyt's "Broader community".
3. Cooperative education is very "individual".

C. THE SASKATOON PROGRAM

In Saskatoon, the term is work education. The reason for this is: The emphasis in Saskatoon, at this time, is a combination career-work education program involving concepts from both areas.

1. Riverview Alternative Collegiate

- School population is 90 percent "identified low achievers".
- Three year program.

In mornings, students are enrolled to modified "academic" courses.

In afternoons, students take a work education program and a life skills program on alternate days. The last 1 1/2 hours of each day is reserved for group "activities".

In year I students spend 60 hours a year in field experiences.

In year II students spend 160 hours a year in field experiences.

In year III students spend 600 hours a year in field experiences (2 days - 50% in a.m. and 50% in p.m.).

2. Life Skill/Work Education: Students with Special Needs

Trainable mentally handicapped
Educable mentally handicapped

3. Credit Programs

Work Education 17	(OVERHEAD)	X
Work Education 27	(OVERHEAD)	X
Work Education 37	(OVERHEAD)	X

or Co-op model

- referrals from counsellor and/or subject teacher
- examples: 1) Graphic Arts Student
  2) Journalism Student
  3) Business Ed Student

4. Practicum to Skill Subject

- component of course (no extra credit)
- examples: 1) Accounting
  2) Office Practice
  3) Home Economics

5. Career Exploration

- referrals from counsellor or teacher
- students spend a predetermined time with a chosen professional

OBJECTIVES FOR WORK EDUCATION 17-27-37

AS A RESULT OF PARTICIPATING IN THE WORK EDUCATION PROGRAM STUDENTS WILL:

- DEVELOP POSITIVE UNDERSTANDING OF SELF-INTERESTS, APTITUDES, NEEDS, VALUES, ASPIRATIONS.
- CONTROL THEIR WORKING LIVES THROUGH THE AQUISITION OF DECISION-MAKING SKILLS AND OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING.
- DEVELOP PERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AND ATTITUDES ESSENTIAL TO SUCCESS IN SCHOOL AND WORK.
- DEVELOP A RESPECT AND APRECIATION FOR OTHER PEOPLE AND THE WORK THEY DO.
- DEVELOP A CONCEPT OF QUALITIES OF A SUCCESSFUL WORKER.
- DEVELOP FLEXIBLE SKILLS AND ATTITUDES NECESSARY TO COPE WITH A CHANGING WORK ENVIRONMENT.
- UNDERSTAND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WHAT THEY LEARN IN SCHOOL AND THE WORKING WORLD AND HOW THIS ASSISTS IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

WORK EDUCATION 17

Credit Offered
1 or 2

Time allocation
in class-60 hours
field-60 hours

UNIT I THE CONCEPT OF WORK
UNIT II SELF AWARENESS
UNIT III EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONS
UNIT IV CAREER EXPLORATION

WORK EDUCATION 27

Credit Offered
1 or 2

Time allocation
in class-50 hours
field-80 hours

UNIT I JOB SKILLS
UNIT II CAREER EXPLORATION
UNIT III EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS
UNIT IV JOB SEARCH TECHNIQUES

WORK EDUCATION 37

Credit offered
1 or 2

Time allocation
in class-40 hours
field-100 hours

UNIT I EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS
UNIT II PERSONAL AWARENESS AS IT RELATES TO FUTURE OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE
UNIT III THE PROCESS OF MAKING OCCUPATIONS CHOICES (GOAL SETTING)
UNIT IV CREATIVE JOB SEARCH AND PREPARATION

- examples: 1) Dental Technician
  2) Chartered Accountant
  3) Veterinarian
- Application Form

In total, we have about 500 students participating in our program (that is a small number, but our program is young). Our initial parameters were to work with the "low achievers". We indicated to Dr. Earl, our superintendent that if work education is good for "low Achievers" it is good for everyone. He said: "Maybe in five years." Well, 1 1/2 years later we had broken out.

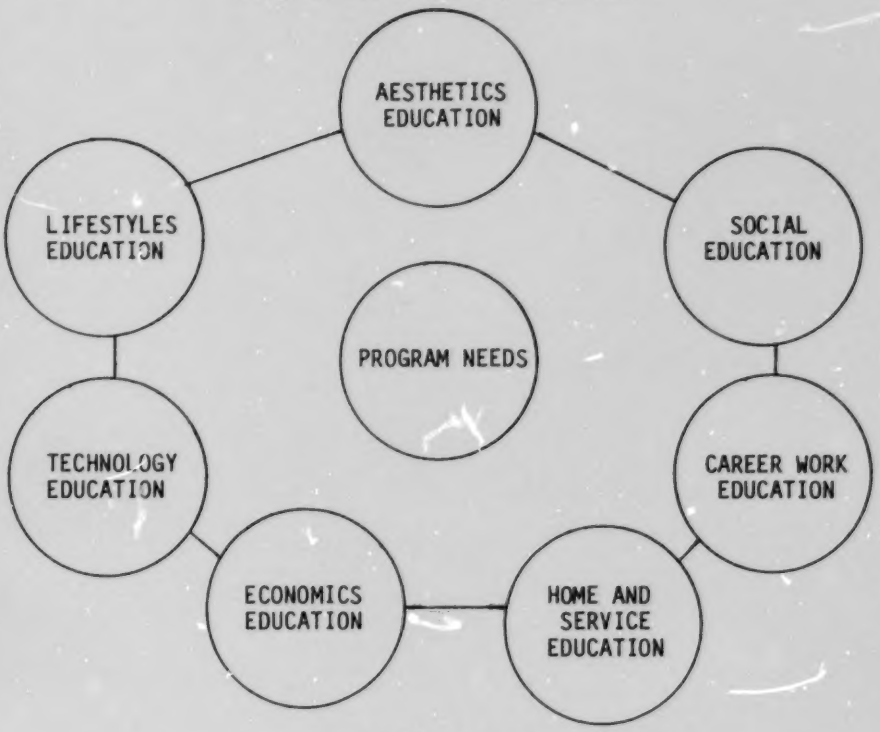
Presently, in our program, we have approximately:
55 percent "identified low achievers";
45 percent other.

D. THE PROPOSED ALTERNATIVE EDUCATION COLLEGIATE

- instruction will be divided in the following method:
  1/3 classrom - e.g. study a play
  1/3 practical application within the school - e.g. television production
  1/3 practical application outside the school - e.g. public performance
- based on seven program clusters
  See overheads

1) Aesthetics Education
   This area will reflect the consumer dimension, the creative dimension and the career dimension.
2) Carrer/Work Education
   The major focus will be on informed decision-making for career and job selection.
3) Economic Education
   The purpose of this area is to develop competence in management of individual economic affairs.
4) Home and Service Education
   The maintenance of a home extends naturally into the service industry since food, custodial, accommodation and child services are projections of the home.
5) Lifestyles Education
   This cluster is desiged to provide learning opportunities in healthful living - both physical and psychological.
6) Social Education
   The intent is to offer instruction and experiences that progress from the individual's interaction with peers to interaction with the larger community.
7) Technology Education
   The purpose of this is to bring students in contact with the uses and implications of the technology of today's society.

ALTERNATIVE SECONDARY EDUCATION



SEQUENCE OF THEMES

GRADE IX	ORIENTATION
GRADE X	EXPLORATION
GARDE XI	CHOICE/DECISION-MAKING
GRADE XII	INDEPENDENCE

E. THE COOPERATIVE CAREER WORK EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF CANADA: WHAT IS IT?

The C.C.W.E.A.C. is an umbrella association of the Provincial/Territorial Associations.

What are the Objectives?

1. To provide a national voice on elementary, secondary, and post-secondary school cooperative, career and work education programs.
2. To provide a forum for the active interchange of ideas and experience among educators, employers, students and others.
3. To provide and disseminate information about cooperative, career and work education among all member associations.
4. To promote courses and programs relating to pre-employment skills, career exploration and community involvement for members of affiliated associations.
5. To provide workshops, conferences, seminars, and other learning activities for members involved in cooperative, career and work education programs.

What is the Membership?

Overhead

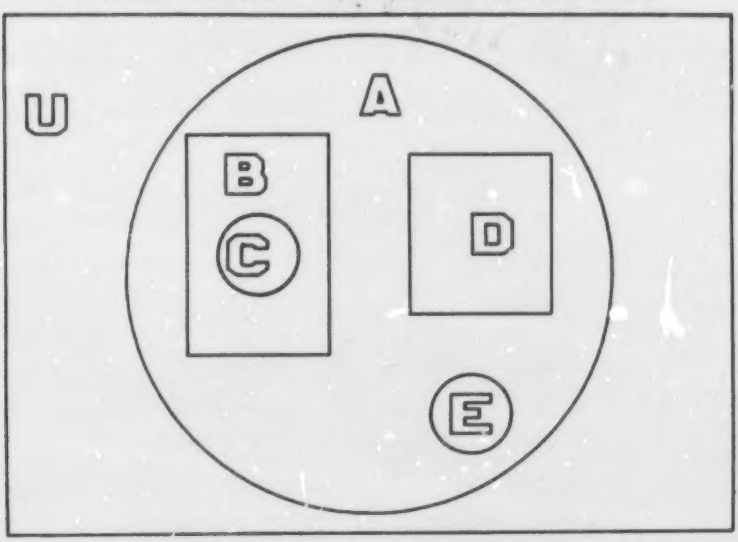
By-Laws

At present, the By-laws are in the "interim" stage.

Values

To us, members of the C.C.W.E.A.C., we hope to facilitate, by integrating the efforts of counsellors, teachers, and that "Broader community", the process by which school will truly become a "preparation for life".

CCWEAC—MEMBERSHIP



EXPLANATION

U: Set of individuals/groups that support the objectives of cooperative/career/wk ed.
A: Board of Directors of the C.C.W.E.A.C.
B: Active Membership - voting (belong to Provincial Associations).
C: Executive Committee
D: Advisory Membership - non-voting.
E: Corporate Membership - non-voting.

CAREER AWARENESS PROGRAMME: EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS, GRADE 7

The Ottawa Board of Education

RATIONALE

The Ontario Ministry of Education has stated that the function of career education is to "provide the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to make work and life productive and satisfying. It is a continuing process that will affect all facets of students' lives and will, to a large extent, determine the quality of their performance in the various roles they may be called upon to play..."(1)

In the Ottawa Board of Education, career awareness is viewed as an integral part of each student's education. As such, a career awareness component is a dimension of all curricula from kindergarten to the completion of secondary school, providing each student with the opportunity to become increasingly aware and knowledgeable about the world of work.

In the first year of the Intermediate Division the emphasis is on EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS. By grade seven the student has had the opportunity to become aware of a number of occupations during studies in the Primary and Junior Divisions. EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS will build on this base, assisting the student to develop a framework of essential conceptual knowledge and inquiry skills which will facilitate the effective investigation of career possibilities.

AIMS

This programme will provide students with the opportunity to:

1. Acquire a conceptual framework for exploring career occupations.
2. Develop the inquiry skills and criteria required to investigate career/occupations effectively.
3. Examine and compare a number of career/occupations.
4. Develop a positive attitude towards career planning and the world of work.

INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES

The student will:

1. Define and use in context the terminology and concepts related to the planning of career paths.

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1 Ontario Ministry of Education, Career Education Policy Statement, April 21.81 (Draft Document)

2. Describe a career path in terms of its stages.
3. Explain the relationship between individual interests, skills and abilities and the selection of a career/occupation.
4. Outline the relationship between the knowledge and skills acquired in the preparation stage and the individual's ability to aspire to a given career/occupation.
5. State briefly the relationship between technological change, change in the world of work, and the need to be adaptable.
6. Classify occupations in terms of dominant focus on people, data or things.
7. Establish organizing frameworks for comparison inquiries.
8. List a given set of criteria for the investigation of occupations.
9. Conduct systematic comparison inquiries into a minimum of eight occupations.
10. Recognize that the individual's freedom to pursue a career path is restricted only by one's interests, aptitudes, skills and willingness to work towards a chosen goal.

The final programme, EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS, is designed to be taught as part of the Language Arts curriculum. It is to be introduced and completed in a series of stages within a three to four week time-frame, beginning in early to mid October and concluding with, or shortly after, Ontario Career Week in November. The units have been designed to be taught in the following sequence:

STAGE	UNITS	RECOMMENDED NUMBER OF CONSECUTIVE (40 minute) PERIODS
1	1 - 2 - 3	4 - 5
BREAK		
2	4 - 5 - 6	4 - 5
BREAK		
3	7 - 8	5
	(9 optional)	1

The task of the Language Arts teacher is to complete the requirements of the units which develop the conceptual framework and the inquiry skills basic to the programme.

Following completion of this phase, the focus will shift to the actual investigation of careers/occupations within the context of the subjects which comprise the

curriculum. In this phase each subject teacher will be required to provide students with the opportunity to investigate an appropriate number of career/occupations during the remainder of the school year. This application period will enhance the skill development initiated in the first phase via the Language Arts curriculum.

UNIT OVERVIEW

Unit I So, What's a Career Path?
An introduction to the programme to illustrate the different phases or periods of a career path.

Unit 2 Planning My Career Path
A discussion of the knowledge required to plan an individual's career path.

Unit 3 Learning About Myself
A self-awareness exercise that focuses on discovering one's skills and interests to see their role in the planning of a career path.

Unit 4 Special Skills for Special Jobs
An introduction to the employability skills required to enter the world of work.

Unit 5 Exploring the World of Work
Classifying occupations into clusters that require similar skills.

Unit 6 Working With People, Things and Data
An exploration of different kinds of occupations that focus mainly on working with people, data or things.

Unit 7 Comparing Occupations
Using the comparison frameworks to explore occupations.

Unit 8 Comparing Occupations (2)
Applying the skills taught in Unit 7 to explore eight different occupations.

Unit 9 Jobs: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow
Exploring the concept of change in the world of work.

ROLES/RESPONSIBILITIES

A. The Superintendent of Schools
- To assist in the implementation of the Career Awareness Programmes.
- To assist in the ongoing monitoring and summative assessment of the first year of the programme.
- To report to the superintendent of Programme his/her observations, recommendations and assessment.

B. The Principal
- To ensure the implementation of the programme in the school
- To organize the school to facilitate implementation of the programme.
- To provide clear direction to the staff as to individual roles.

- To assist teachers to obtain any required inservice training.
- To ensure the provision of adequate resources for the programme.
- To monitor the programme on a regular basis and make appropriate reports to the Superintendent of Schools.
- To involve the community where possible as a resource to further the basis of the project.
- To provide the community with information on the Aims and Intended Learning Outcomes of the programme.

C. The Teacher

Language Arts Teacher

- To support and cooperate with the principal in the implementation of the Aims of the Career Awareness Programme.
- To organize the Language Arts programme to include the nine career awareness units.
- To provide each student with the opportunity to achieve the Intended Learning Outcomes set forth in the programme.
- To assist the principal in the assessment of the Career Awareness Programme.

Subject Teacher

- To support and cooperate with the principal in the implementation of the Aims of the Career Awareness Programme.
- To organize the subject programme to include the investigation of career/occupations within the format established by the Career Awareness Programme.
- To provide each student with the opportunity to investigate an appropriate number of career/occupations as advised by the principal.
- To assit the principal in the assessment of the Career Awareness Programme.

D. The Guidance Counsellor

- To assist the principal and teachers in the implementation of the Aims of the Career Awareness Programme.
- To assist the principal in the co-ordination of activities related to the progamme, such as school planning, organization and the procurement of essential programme materials.
- To assist the teacher in the acquisition of additional resources.
- To function as a staff resource person in the area of Career Education with particular reference to items such as S.G.I.S.
- To assist the principal in the provision of instruction to students in the use of the Student Guidance Information Services, S.G.I.S.
- To assist the principal in the assessment of the Career Awareness Programme.

E. The Parent

To support the student in the pursuit of the Intended Learning Outcomes of the programme by:

- Fostering a positive attitude towards the importance of career awareness;
- Serving as a resource person for the student's inquiries into the world of work;
- Providing opportunities for the student to discuss aspects of career awareness and planning for the world of work which are of particular interest.

F. The Student

- To endeavour to achieve the Intended Learning Outcomes established for the programme.
- To extend through application in other contexts the knowledge and skills acquired.

RESOURCES

The following resources are provided for the support of the programme. Others can be obtained in the school Library, the media centre, and in a variety of publications. As well, the community itself can be used as a resource.

1. Nine student Workbooks (Units)
2. Student Folders
3. Career/Occupation Fact Sheets
4. Teacher Manual
5. Posters:
   "CAREER STEPS"
   "COMPARING OCCUPATIONS"
   "COMPARING OCCUPATIONS IN _____"
   "EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS"
6. Slide/Tape Kits.

INTRODUCTION

EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS has been developed to assist in the teaching of Career Planning Skills to grade 7 students. Intended specifically for classroom use, this programme provides a group approach to what eventually must become an individual career exploration. The originality of the programme rests in its approach to the career exploration process itself. It focuses on the need to provide students with the knowledge and skills needed to:

- define the nature of an occupation,
- compare different occupations effectively,
- retain those career possibilities that appear best suited to individual interests, abilities and aspirations.

The skills required by students range from the ability to ask pertinent questions to gain accurate information about specific occupations, to the more complex skills used to organize the information so that it can be analyzed and evaluated.

The methodology proposed in EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS lies in the implementation of comparison skills developed by working with framework organizers. By applying the skills needed to complete these comparison frameworks, students are learning to:

- plan an inquiry into the world of work,
- gather information systematically,
- store the information in an organized way,
- process the information for future use.

The significance of this approach lies in the potential for growth. By mastering the skills the student increases his or her ability to cope with the growing amount of career information made available throughout the Intermediate Divison.

A RATIONALE FOR THE INQUIRY SKILLS APPROACH

It is safe to assume that the grade 7 student's initial response to planning a career lies in an attempt to answer the question: "What do I want to do (or be) when I grow up?"

EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS is designed to take students beyond that simplistic approach by subdividing the inquiry into a series of more pertinent questions:

- What occupations are available to me?
- What do I need to know about these occupations to be able to choose one that is best suited to me?
- How are these occupations alike? How are they different?

These basic questions become the key to an inquiry process that focuses on the skills required to explore occupations in a meaningful way. Central to the approach is a framework organizer, also called a comparison framework, that allows students to progress through a step by step approach that encompasses the planning, gathering, organization and processing of career related information. By learning to use these comparison frameworks, an example of which appears in the following heading, the student gains access to a series of inquiry skills, that allows him or her not only to explore occupations systematically, but also to record and process the information for future reference.

INQUIRY SKILLS: COMPARISON

The core of this approach is to provide the student with the skills required to plan and complete a comparison

inquiry using the framework illustrated on the following page.

The framework contains a set of seven predetermined questions or criteria to be used to discover the following things:

- the nature of an occupation,
- the skills, education and training required to enter and progress through the occupation,
- a knowledge of the working conditions that prevail in the occupation.

These questons direct the inquiry. In answering them, the student investigates not only one occupation, but simultaneously provides a basis for comparison with any other occupation. With continued application, the student's ability to compare a number of occupations will increase.

Having completed a comparison, the student then proceeds to process the information by considering the analysis questions which appear at the bottom of the comparison framework.

STUDENT RESOURCE: THE CAREER FACT SHEET

For convenience, a set of approximately one hundred career fact sheets has been prepared to help the student investigate occupations. In any fact sheet, such as the one illustrated on the following page, the students will find sufficient information to answer the questions demanded by the framework.

The programme has been designed so as not to force the student into a decision-making mode at this time in their lives. It is expected that the students will begin to explore a range of occupations in order to establish a preliminary list of career possibilities that correspond to their interests, abilities and aspirations.

It is further expected that this list will continue to expand as the students complete the Intermediate Divsion, to a point where, having explored many career possibilities, and having acquired a better understanding of themselves and of the world of work, students may continue to plan a career path which is in keeping with their individual aspirations.

In this sense, EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS is a stepping stone, the initial phase of a much broader career planning process that will last a lifetime.

COMPARING OCCUPATIONS

	If I were a _____	If I were a _____
What kind of work would I do?		
What kind of equipment would I use?		
Where would I work?		
With whom would I work?		
When would I work?		
What education would I need?		
What skills would I need?		
How are these jobs alike?		
How are they different?		
What interests you most about each of these jobs?		

BUS DRIVER

My work shift begins when I check into the garage to pick up the bus I will be driving. Before leaving the garage, I am responsible for checking the tires, brakes, wipers, lights, and interior. At the end of my shift, I must complete a report to indicate any faulty equipment, accidents or complaints I have received during the shift.

Although I usually ride the same route, I must be familiar with all the routes that exist, as well as the time schedules. Many times during the day, I must check with an inspector to see whether I am following the time schedule and other regulations.

I find that men and women who work as bus drivers must be able to tolerate long unbroken stretches of driving through congested city streets. If they work on inter-city routes, they must expect to be away from home a lot. Bus drivers must deal with the public, not only in collecting tickets and fees and handing out transfers, but also in providing information on bus routes and schedules. They must be prepared to assist elderly passengers as well as the handicapped persons who travel on the bus. Occasionally, bus drivers must deal with passengers who are rowdy or inconsiderate.

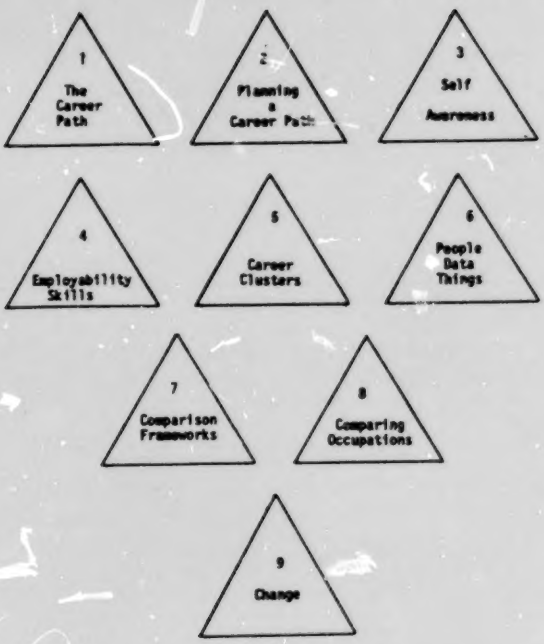
To become a bus driver, I had to pass a physical examination, demonstrate excellent vision and, of course, pass the necessary driving tests to obtain my Class C licence. While the company I work for required a high school diploma for the job, others do not.

My workweek consists of forty hours, with plenty of evening and weekend shifts.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PROGAMME

While the focus of EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS is on the inquiry skill of comparison, there is also a need for pertinent knowledge. This knowledge would include a better understanding of the concepts and terminology essential to an effective inquiry into career paths and the world of work. These concepts are illustrated in the concept organizer which appears below, and in the unit overview on the following page.

CONCEPT ORGANIZER



UNIT OVERVIEW

Unit 1 SO, WHAT'S A CAREER PATH?
An introduction to the programme to illustrate the different phases or periods of a career path.

Unit 2 PLANNING MY CAREER PATH
A discussion of the knowledge required to plan an individual's career path.

Unit 3 LEARNING ABOUT MYSELF
A self-awareness exercise that focuses on discovering one's skills and interests to see the role in the planning of a career path.

Unit 4 SPECIAL SKILLS FOR SPECIAL JOBS
An introduction to the employability skills required to enter the world of work.

Unit 5 EXPLORING THE WORLD OF WORK
Classifying occcupations into clusters that require similar skills.

Unit 6 WORKING WITH PEOPLE, THINGS AND DATA
An exploration of different kinds of occupations that focus mainly on working with people, data or things.

Unit 7 COMPARING OCCUPATIONS
Using the comparison framework to explore occupations.

Unit 8 COMPARING OCCUPATIONS (2)
Applying the skills taught in Unit 7 to explore eight different occupations.

Unit 9 JOBS: YESTERDAY, TODAY AND TOMORROW
Exploring the concept of change in the world of work.

ADAPTING THE PROGRAMME

While EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS has been written with the "average" grade 7 student in mind, situations will occur where the teacher will have to adapt the programme to the needs of a particular class, or of a particular group of students within a class. There are different ways by which EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS may be modified to accommodate the situation while fulfilling the basic aims of the programme. The following are suggestions which the teacher may consider.

One way is to set up a different time-frame, for the introduction of the progamme. Teachers who feel that more time is required could consider starting earlier in October and, if necessary, continuing beyond Career Week in November. However, because of the nature of the programme and the skills being taught, the time-frame should not extend much beyond a four week period. To do so would not only affect the mastery of the skills, but could also jeopardize the work which is expected to occur in other subject areas throughout the remainder of the school year.

A second way to adapting the programme is to reduce the number of exercises to be completed in each unit. The Teacher's Manual presently identifies a number of optional exercises. These provide a sufficient number of applications to allow students the opportunity to practise their newly acquired skills. Included are a variety of classroom activities, such as group discussions, individual writing activities and interviews. It remains the prerogative of the classroom teacher to select those exercises considered to be most applicable to a given class of students without wasting valuable time or imposing needless repetition.

In certain circumstances the concepts themselves may appear too intricate for some students. Instead of setting these concepts aside, the teacher might attempt to simplify the presentation to suit the needs of those students. Two examples might illustrate this approach.

1. The concept of a career path, particularly as defined by the "career steps" which appear in unit 2, could be simplified by limiting the presentation to the three major phases of a career path which are: the beginning or preparation phase, the development or progression phase and the retirement phase. Students could then be encouraged to pick out as many activities related to each of these phases as they can without formally introducing all of the activities which appear in the "career steps."
2. The comparison framework introduced in Units 7 and 8 can be simplified by reducing the number of question or criteria used to define an occupation.

For instance, a teacher might limit the number of questions to the following:

- What kind of work would I do?
- What kinds of equipment would I use?
- What training would I need?
- What skills would I need?

This simplified approach while not offering all of the information available, provides sufficient knowledge to the student to perform an inquiry and apply the skills to achieve the major objective of the programme in a modified approach.

In this latter instance the student should be given the opportunity to complete a great number of comparison frameworks than suggested to achieve mastery. The teacher should note that this will hold true in any instance where the student experiences undue difficulty with this or any other skill.

Teachers are therefore encouraged to adapt the programme in any way that facilitates the learning process while retaining the basic Aims and Intended Learning Outcome of EXPLORING OCCUPATIONS.

PEER CAREER COUNSELLING: AN EDUCATIONAL TRAINING MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The peer career counselling educational training model has six components that are designed for a secondary school career development program. The peer career counsellors are trained in communication skills to facilitate self exploration, values, life/career planning, decision-making, ethics, and referral while working in their own social network. In addition the model is designed to assist the school counsellor in implementing increasing services by utilizing students to help other students.

"Monique will be eighteen next month and a high school graduate. Her best friend Sonia will be going to a community college in September to study interior design. That does not interest Monique, but Sonia's enthusiasm about doing something creative and realistic has caused Monique to find out more about community college offerings. Monique's father wants her to do something that will offer security, which to him means the sciences. Those kinds of subjects have never interested Monique. She has talked to her counsellor once and would like to do so again if she could. The last time Monique went to the counsellor's office, the counsellor seemed so busy. Her look through the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO) only confused her even more."

In many Canadian schools the situation of Monique is repeated with consistent frequency. Most prospective secondary school graduates are aware that the current job market in Canada is tight. Youth unemployment has never been as high as it is today (Sen. 1983). The national unemployment rate is 11.4% for those over 25 years of age, but an astonishing 21% for those 15-24 years of age (Statistics Canada, 1983). Students like Monique have a legitimate fear of their future job prospects. The irony of high youth unemployment is that many schools are reducing the type of services that could help students like Monique. School counsellors and teachers are losing their jobs as provincial governments institute restraint measures. The challenge that faces school counsellors is trying to maintain those services that can assist students like Monique with decreasing resources. That is where the peer counselling concept offers a viable strategy, that can increase the number of students helped while utilizing available resources without increasing costs and man hours.

THE CONCEPT OF PEER COUNSELLING

Peer counselling can assist students with a variety of problems and can contribute significantly to the psychological education of students who become peer counsellors (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971). When students are experiencing frustrations, concerns and problems they generally seek out their friends or other students instead of school counsellors, teachers, and parents (Carr, 1980). The peer counsellor is essentially a student who cares and is willing to listen and talk to other students about their concerns and worries (Carr & Saunders, 1980). Communication, decision-making, problem-solving, and support are the primary skills of peer counsellors and their existing social network is the main arena for helping. McDowell (1982) has described the counselling sessions as the "... chance to really talk and say what is on your mind to a friend that listens and understands."

The traditional peer counselling training approach is to train students in two phases (Carr & Saunders, 1980). The first phase focuses on communication skills (empathy); values clarification; motivation; family relationships; and problem-solving. The second phase consists of the peer counsellor actually using the helping skills under the supervision of the school counsellor. Thus, the second phase offers the school counsellor the opportunity to monitor the peer counsellor while supporting the student as a help provider and continuing the development of effective helping skills (France & McDowell, 1982a).

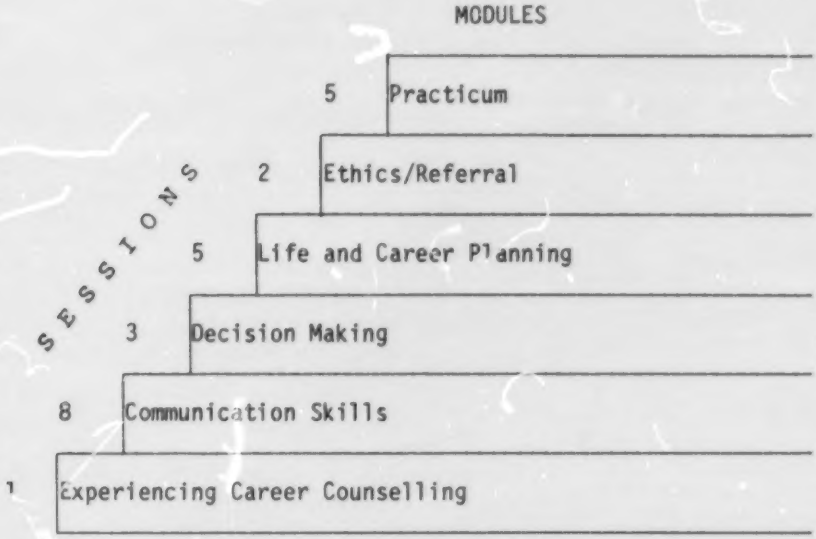
At the present there is no documentation whether secondary school students talk to other students about career concerns, future job prospect or other career concerns, but it is likely that it accounts for a significant amount of casual conversation. With peers playing a significant role in influencing adolescents, there is a crucial need to insert skilled and knowledgeable peers. It is likely that a number of high risk students (students with a higher potential for unemployment) tend to be more peer oriented, and often avoid contact with authority figures (e.g. counsellors, teachers, etc.), thus increasing the need for effective career oriented peers in their social network. In addition, the fact that students can be effective peer career resources evolves from the technological revolution such as the computerization of information and materials. In some instances an experienced counsellor is not necessary in the dispensing of career information especially with the plethora of computer-assisted career counselling programs (e.g., CHOICES, S I.G.I., Personal Career Directions, etc.). Students can effectively use computers and can assist their peers in accessing information as efficiently and effectively as counsellors (France & McDowell, 1982a).

Training Peer Career Counsellors

Students are recruited from the different social networks, using the methods and procedures developed by Carr and Saunders (1980). The optimal size of training groups is from five and to ten students. Students meet regularly throughout the training period for two hour blocks depending on the needs and capability of the students.

Figure 1

Peer Career Counsellor Training Model



Experiencing Career Counselling Module

According to Super (1982), many students view career planning as advice giving or providing information rather than a dynamic process that continues over a life time of development. Therefore, the school counsellor should model a career planning session in which the primary goal is to demonstrate effective communication skills along with the career exploratory process. The school counsellor outlines for the peer career counsellors the major career counselling concepts. To process the module the school counsellor facilitates by asking the following questions: How was the relationship between the helper and student established? What feelings surfaced during the session? How did the helper use questioning as an exploratory skill? What did you learn about the career counselling process? To insure that the significant aspects of the counselling process are understood, the school counsellor summarized the process.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS MODULE

Ivey's (1983) microcounselling approach combined with the Peer Counselling Starter Kit (Carr & Saunders, 1980) is a convenient and widely used training format, and has been used successfully to train peer counsellors (McIntyre, Thomas & Borger, 1982; Saunders, 1982; France & Gallagher, 1983). The adaptation of the microcounselling paradigm consists of the following steps:

1. A written description of the skill with concrete examples is given to the participants to read before the module;
2. A videotape/audiotape (10 minutes) of a trained peer career counsellor modelling the skill is shown with a real or role-playing client;
3. A videotape/audiotape analysis, including the peer career counsellor's and client's behaviour, is conducted by the school counsellor and the group;
4. Participants tape a five-minute interview with a role-playing client, which is then critiqued by counsellor. The participant is encouraged to practice the skill continually until it is mastered.

The single-skills approach using the microcounselling paradigm has the advantage in that it does not overwhelm the beginner with information. Another advantage is that the program can operate with very little direction from the counsellor.

DECISION-MAKING

Super (1982) describes the process of decision making as one of the most important skills that a student can learn in the career counselling process. The training in this phase begins with Varenhorst's (1968) Life Career Game. The game introduces trainees to career counselling problems by presenting the life of a hypothetical student. Working in dyads trainees are asked to help the hypothetical student make career decisions. The process allows the trainees to experience the decision making process. According to McDowell (1982) there is greater understanding of the decision making process when students have the opportunity to role-play decision making. Using the five step decision making model (Carr & Saunders, 1980) trainees experience working through a career related decision. For example, the trainees facilitate in the exploration of a conflict between the dislike of math and interest in computer technology. Communication skills learned in module 2 are practiced as well as the decision making paradigm. The decision making paradigm consists of: identifying problems; exploring alternatives and consequences; choosing the next step; acting on the choice; and evaluating the results.

LIFE AND CAREER PLANNING MODULE

The purpose of this module of the training is to introduce the participants to life and career planning skills. The goal is accomplished through activities which focus on values clarification, exploration of interests, temperaments, and aptitudes. In addition, the participants are introduced to the career resource library and how to use the resources with students. The participants get the chance to see the school counsellor or peer counsellor model at a counselling session. Participants are then encouraged to role-play helping a student find occupational and educational information. In addition, participants learn to use the CHOICES system. The CHOICES system lends itself to the peer career counselling concept in that it is not only a motivator, but it is something that is simple enough that students can work through themselves. The participants learn how to prepare their peers for the Travel Guide and help demonstrate the terminal.

ETHICS AND REFERRAL MODULE

The next module of the training focusses on ethical issues, such as confidentiality, and offering support. Participants develop a code of ethics, and where necessary are introduced to the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association's Guidelines for Ethical behaviour (Herman, 1981). Duncan (1976) has found that when peer counsellors develop their own code they are more aware of the realm in which they are operating.

Peer career counsellors often face the dilemma of when they can deal with a student with a problem or when to refer to a professional. Thus, peer career counsellors are given the opportunity to explore the limits of their own helping skills and when to refer a student for additional help. Often peer counsellors act as a bridge for students who would not normally use the career counselling services. At times peer career counsellors may in fact feel hesitant to help, therefore, participants learn their limitations and when and how they should refer. Participants learn to work as a team with other school personnel.

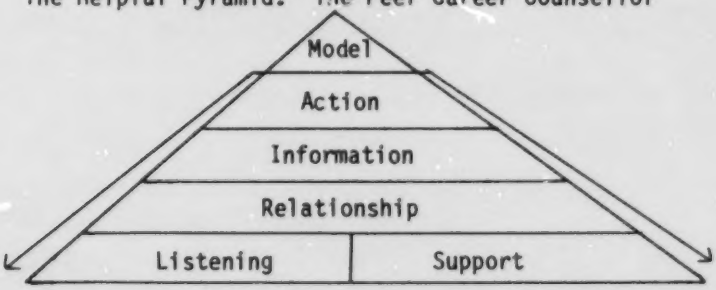
PRACTICUM MODULE

In the practicum module participants are encouraged to use their skills they have learned under the supervision of the school counsellor. They use their skills working in the career resource library or in their social network, but they meet once a week, for five weeks, sharing their experiences. The school counsellor gives support and feedback on how well the skills are being integrated. The sessions also provide opportunities to work on problem areas, explore helping issues, and present new career materials.

A PEER CAREER COUNSELLOR

The basic function of a peer career counsellor is twofold. First, the peer career counsellor operates in his/her own social network listening and encouraging friends and acquaintances with their concerns and worries. In that capacity the peer career counsellor spreads the message of effective career planning and job acquisition skills. That does not mean that career concerns are dichotomized from personal concerns. Career concerns are so closely interfaced to personal concerns that the skills and knowledge to be effective in the career area are the same. The difference is knowledge of the career counselling process and access to career information.

Figure 2
The Helpful Pyramid: The Peer Career Counsellor



The most important skill of the peer career counsellor is the ability to listen to the concerns of students. Not only paying attention to content, but the feelings associated with the content. The peer career counsellor should be able to reflect the feeling and content and help put it in perspective for the client. In effective listening the peer career counsellor should be supportive and caring. No matter whether the client eventually goes to see the school counsellor or another professional, the peer career counsellor will always be supportive. The second level of the helper pyramid is the building of a relationship. The natural process of relationship that exists among peers is paramount to the peer counselling concept. The career peer counsellor possesses the affinity of language, age, and experience that the professional does not possess. The next level, which is crucial to career counselling is either having the career information or knowing where to get it. The peer career counsellor will know how to use the C.C.D.O., the Self Directed Search (S.D.S.), or CHOICES, and can help other students access information that would be confusing otherwise. The next level is using the skills of decision making and problem solving. The peer career counsellor is trained to take action on whatever problem is presented. This could mean just listening or supporting the client all the way to helping the client work through a problem to assisting the school counsellor in the career

library, on CHOICES or any other supportive task. The apex of the helpful pyramid is the concept of the peer career counsellor as a model for other students. The peer career counsellor uses the qualities of helpfulness and support, while demonstrating effective use of career development tools (using and promoting career counselling).

The following is an example of how a peer career counsellor functions with Monique.

Peer Career Counsellor: "Can I help?"

Monique: "Oh yeah. Well ... I'm going to graduate next year and I have no idea of what I'm going to do. I was thinking that it might be a good idea to start (finding out) now. But like there's just so many choices these days, so many other factors and that are confusing and make a decision difficult."

Peer Counsellor: "That's frustrating ... especially knowing that there are so many possible decisions. Knowing which one is not easy."

Monique: "Yeah, that's right."

Peer Career Counsellor: "There's lots of stuff I can help you with. Can you tell me what you're taking right now?"

Monique: "Mostly literature and art. I'm taking science and math because my father thinks they will help me get a job, but I don't really care that much for them. I do well, but I'm more interested in something else."

Peer Career Counsellor: "You like literature and art, but not math and science."

Monique: "Yes, that's right. What can I do with that?"

Peer Career Counsellor: "That's difficul.. How would you feel about taking an interest test?"

Monique: "Yes, what is it?"

Peer Career Counsellor: "Well, like if you're going into a job, it's best that you know if you're going to like it o" not ... like if it's going to interest you ... The Self-Directed Search is an interest test that lists the occupations based on school subjects, activities, hobbies and so on. It kind of shows you what turns you on in the form of jobs."

Analysis: The peer counsellor identifies Monique's feelings (frustration and worry), while helping to clarify the problem (lack of information) by reflecting feelings and content. In addition, the peer counsellor explains the career materials and prepares the student for one of the school career counselling programs.

THE BENEFITS OF PEER CAREER COUNSELLING

The primary benefit of a peer career counselling program is that more students can be reached. Peer career counsellors can also provide a practical, efficient, and economical means for meeting the increasing amount of guidance services that are needed in Canadian schools. If trained properly now, professionals can be just as effective

as counsellors in many guidance and counselling activities (France & Gallagher, 1983). Evidence also indicates that student facilitators are as accepted by student clients as are professional counsellors. And in some cases, they are accepted even more so, especially in the initial stages of the relationship. Sometimes information can be presented to students in an informal and less intimidating manner when peers provide that information. And many times adults do not understand the straightforward language and customs of the younger generation. Peer career counsellors can therefore help bridge this gap and assist professional counsellors in gaining a much better perspective on student problems and issues.

In essence, using peers as a resource, extends the range of guidance services. A peer career counselling program is an outreach approach to counselling which really is most appropriate for today's contemporary times. Learning really is more efficient when students assist other students and accept more responsibility for creating the learning climate. Peer career counsellors gain from being facilitators of others by increasing their own intra- and interpersonal skills (Carr and Saunders, 1980). And finally, peer career counsellors are facilitating programs that are really a foundation for a developmental and life skills approach to guidance and counselling within the school environment.

HOW DOES IT WORK IN A SCHOOL?

Spectrum Community School, Victoria, B.C., is a comprehensive school with approximately 1200 students and 2 1/2 counsellors. It has had a peer counselling program for 7 years. As an established program, competitions to become peer counsellors are quite stiff. Out of the 40 students who applied in 1982, only 14 students were eventually accepted into the training program. Acceptance was based on: willingness to be helpful; having most social groups represented (e.g. "jocks", "prepees", "heads", etc.); and being free at certain times during the day where the counselling area can be covered. The following sections present a part of conversations with Mrs. Wendy Neumann, a school counsellor, and Mr. John O'Carroll and Kirsten Kieferle, peer counsellors, at Spectrum.

HOW DOES A SCHOOL COUNSELLOR FEEL ABOUT IT?

Counsellor: "Initially the peer counselling program was more geared to just personal counselling because the career centre was not set up. There was a lot of work to do there to get the students re-oriented to career oriented peer counselling. The administration saw the program as an asset because more students could be reached (e.g. more hands to do things). I think there is always the danger that the principal feels that the staff may think that the kids are

taking over responsibilities that the counsellor should be involved in, but that's not what happens. What they do is just provide an extension for me, like I say they're like my 'right arm'. They are able to do a lot of the 'nitty gritty' stuff so you are able to deal more with really difficult problems. The kids (peer counsellors) are with you and you are able to do more. I've never had parents voice concerns about it. When the students apply to become a peer counsellor I send out a letter to the parents explaining the program. Parents know the responsibilities that the students will have ... so the parents are with me ... We did a survey for the school (needs survey) and it turns out that the peer counselling program was ranked very high by the students. The parents ranked it sixth out of 25 items, while the teachers ranked it third as the most important program.

I don't feel like the program makes me work harder. I guess you kind of 'rob Peter to pay Paul'. We do a lot with the organizational part of careers and vocational information. The peer counsellors really cut down on the time it takes to do research on a particular career. In essence, I've got 12 other peer counsellors who are able to go out and do the things that I used to do ... that's a real advantage. Once they are trained, they seem to be able to handle themselves very well. I was apprehensive at first getting involved with CHOICES, but now they handle most aspects of CHOICES. This year was the first time I tried it and it was very successful. Some peer counsellors can even work with groups of students, although most work on a one-to-one basis ...

For people starting off on a peer counselling program, I would start off small and increase things gradually. My experience is that the kids (peer counsellors) are able to handle the responsibilities if they are trained and supervised properly.

I really enjoy the peer counselling program. The kids become very close to me by the end of the year. It's like a family. The ties are very tight and I feel a lot of satisfaction. I've seen them developing skills and using them successfully. They become close to each other, which is a nice thing too because I have a tendency to try and select my peer counsellors from different groups in the school ... I can see that by the end of the year they are close despite the differences.

HOW DO PEER COUNSELLORS FEEL ABOUT IT?

Kirsten: "I became a peer counsellor because ever since I was little I liked listening and helping people. And I figured that being a peer counsellor was a way to get to be around a lot of people ... I used to be so used to hanging around with one crowd. Since I've been working in the peer counselling program, I'm not so narrowminded. I feel more relaxed with people and I'm not such a snob."

John: "Basically, I became a peer counsellor because I wanted to ... the program seemed interesting and a lot of fun ... also at the beginning of the year when I first came to the school I was really a nerd. I've changed a lot since becoming a peer counsellor. I can see it. I'm more open-minded now. I'm not convinced that the way I think, my opinion, is the only opinion. I've changed in the way that I can see other people's point of view. I now try to put myself in other people's position to see what it looks like from their point of view.

Being involved with the peer counselling program and helping others with career information has exposed me to many different kinds of careers. It's made my choice more difficult, but it has been worthwhile. The more exposure to other careers the better off I will be."

Kirsten: "Most students feel comfortable talking to me because I am very accepting to other's feelings. Our program tries to get all the groups in the school represented. I'm in the 'jock/alligator preppies group' ... I think most people in my group feel comfortable talking to me about things (male and female)."

John: "I'm not sure what group I'm in ... The different groups in our schools are the jocks, the heads (those that succumb to drugs), the 'artsy' types, the 'brains' (who are a small group), and those people who aren't in groups. I don't want to say nobody's, but people who don't really stand out as much as others, people who just come here to go to school, you know. And then there's the people that hang around with people outside the school.

Starting a peer counselling group is not difficult. There are kids out there who would be willing to participate in the program like this and give up their free time for it ... So, I don't think it would be a problem at all, it's just a matter of finding the right people, you know, actually they'd even come in, I think, if the program was offered.

When the CHOICES program comes, we're really active in it. I help students through the travel guide. Later I take them through on the terminal itself, and then afterwards I give them a little bit of counselling, so they understood what came out of their lists, what would be good for them and we ask them how they felt about that and if they would really like to see more information, then we give out all our books and files from universities, you know. It is a three session process really. And we're doing it constantly during all the time when CHOICES is here."

Kirsten: "When students don't understand and work in more depth. It takes some people a lot longer to catch on to things than other people. So we just have to be patient and very slow."

John: "The most difficult aspect of CHOICES I found is the Travel Guide and just getting people started. I still enjoy it though."

My whole perspective about the school and people has really changed since I've become a peer counsellor. I feel that I am making a more positive contribution."
Kirsten: "It's like we aren't just consumers, but givers too. I learn from others and others learn from me."
John: "Yeah, it makes us feel like we have more to say. It makes school a more positive place really."

IMPLEMENTATION OF PEER CAREER COUNSELLING

To implement a peer career counselling program on the secondary school level, planning and support is necessary. The set of objectives, procedures, and outcomes should be presented to the school personnel. Once the school supports the notion that there will be peer career counsellors working in the school, a clear explanation of the concept should be explained with application forms, that includes a contract. Students and school personnel should be encouraged to nominate participants. Carr and Saunders (1980) recommend that all groups in the school be represented.

Although the peer career counselling concept suggests that the peer career counsellors work within their social network, the school counsellor should work out a plan for having the peer career counsellors participate in service providing. For example, peer career counsellors can work in the career resource library, on the computer-assisted career program, (i.e. CHOICES), on counselling oriented functions, (i.e. career day), or co-leading a career planning group. The variety and uses of the peer career counsellor are limitless.

SUMMARY

Peer counselling has been used successfully in a variety of counselling situations (Varenhorst, 1974; Carr & Saunders, 1980; France & McDowell, 1982a; France & McDowell, 1982b; France & Gallagher, 1983). In all of these programs, peer counselling seems to increase the personal development of those trained as peer career counsellors. The beauty of this strategy is that a counselling procedure designed to reach more students in an effective and efficient manner also develops an educational program that increases the opportunity for learning for those who become peer counsellors.

The core concept of peer counselling is the perception of individuals not as passive objects in need of assistance, but the view that students are a dynamic resource who want to help others and who will take the time to do it. Peer counselling does contribute significantly to the psychological education of others (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971; McDowell, 1982). However, the most important principle of peer counselling is based on the fact that when a person is experiencing frustration, worries or problems, that person

generally seeks out a peer instead of a professional. For adolescents, teacher, counsellor, or parent (Carr, 1982). In short, a peer counsellor is a person who is willing to listen and talk to another student, in a genuine and empathic manner. In reality, the essence of a good friend. The power of peers is demonstrated in the example of Monique who becomes interested in studying something that does not interest her because her friend is interested in it.

Training of peer career counsellors is very similar to the traditional peer counselling training model. The difference is the emphasis on career related issues rather than just personal problems (e.g. family, drugs, pregnancy, etc.). Each module consists of sessions lasting from 1 to 2 hours. The focus throughout the training is on being empathic and being able to ask questions that are open-ended. Thus, being able to help others express feelings, emotions and concerns are paramount to the effective peer career counsellor.

The next module focuses on decision-making and problem-solving skills. That is, to help the student clarify the problem, to see out information that will relieve the problem and to be supportive of the student in working on the concern. In addition, peer career counsellors need to have a good understanding of what decision making is all about. For example, what are the steps, what must the student first do in order to make a decision about a future career? Consequently, the student must have quite a bit of information on the occupations available.

The next module is exposure to life and career skills (e.g. values, interests, aptitudes, etc.) In addition, participants learn how to use the CHOICES system. The focus is on the peer career counsellors' career development as well as understanding of the career counselling process. When the peer career counsellors begin to work with their peers, they will have a better sense of students' point of reference, because they would have experienced the process.

The referral and support component trains peer counsellors on how to use their communication skills with their peers. At the end of this phase they should be able to help students with career materials.

The practicum component consists of peer career counsellors working within their social networks or with the career resources for the school counsellor. The practicum sessions are for discussing problems that arise with clients and the opportunity to work on skills. In essence the training continues with actual experiences, but with supervision from the school counsellor.

For the school counsellor peer career counselling offers the school counselling program the opportunity to provide more services, reach more students, and further the education of those students who become peer counsellors. Students can be involved in the operation of the CHOICES system, career day, co-leading career groups, Self-Directed

Search, and the dissemination of career-oriented literature. In turn, students benefit because not only are they affected personally by being peer career counsellors, but fit in the natural peer network. Peer career counsellors become the first contact of helpers that students encounter in receiving help. Peer career counsellors have proven themselves to be able to use effective communication skills (McDowell, 1982) and to be able to assist the school counsellor in carrying out effect outreach service (McIntyre, Thomas, & Borgen, 1981). Peer career counsellors also improve their interpersonal skills as they help their peers. Finally, the general awareness of career development increases as more students are involved in career related programs. The dilemma that Monique faced is much more unlikely to occur if the school counsellor has a career program that utilizes peer career counsellors.

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EFFECTIVE JOB PLACEMENT OF THE DISABLED/DISADVANTAGED PERSON

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INTRODUCTION

I am a practitioner in the field of specialized job placement working at LINE 1000. LINE 1000 is a job placement agency for disabled/disadvantaged individuals. It is a federally funded program under the Outreach section of Canada Employment and Immigration Commission, and has the Social Planning Council of Ottawa-Carleton as its sponsor. It was formed through a "grass-roots" movement of agencies and consumers in 1977 who were concerned for and aware of the need of a specialized employment agency that could be fully cognisant of the needs of both employers and consumers. We have been fortunate enough to achieve a placement rate of over 70% every year. In this paper we will give an overview of who is the disabled/disadvantaged person, what she/he can do, obstacles in reaching their capabilities, ways around these obstacles that we find to work now, and recommendations for fuller success in employing disabled/disadvantaged people.

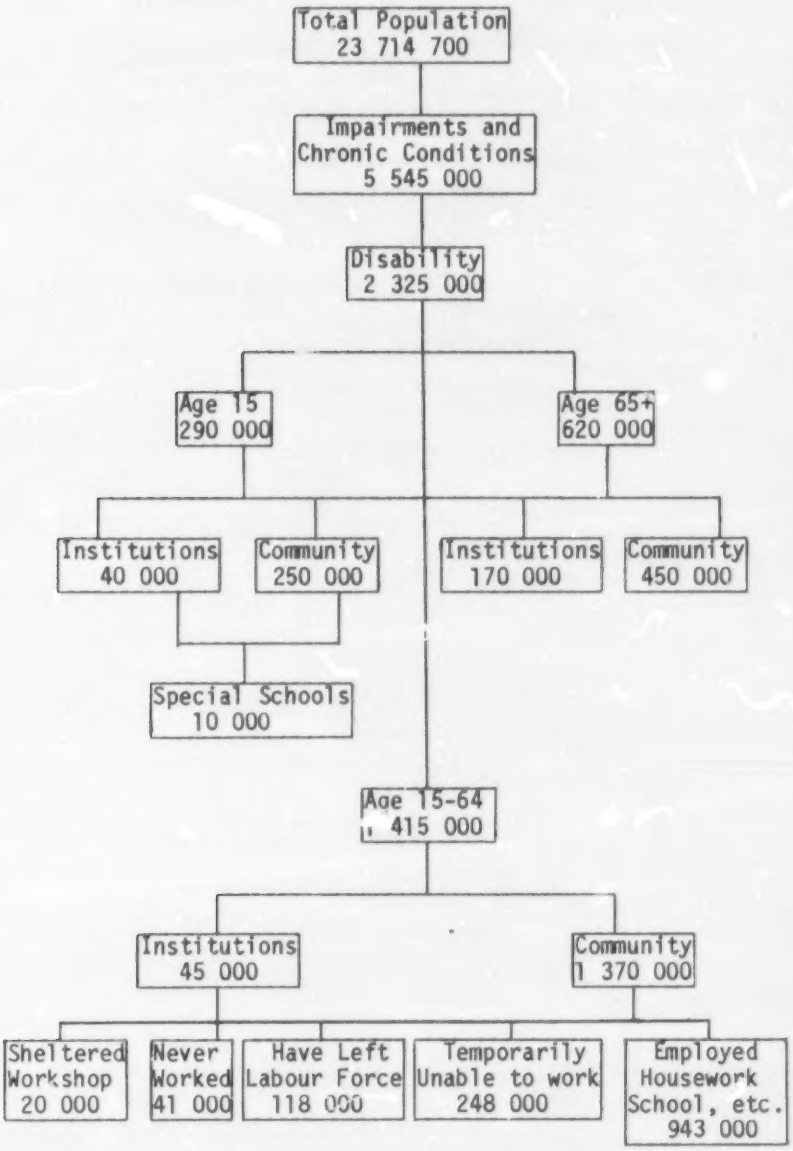
The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons (1975) defines a disabled person as "any person unable to ensure by himself or herself wholly or partly the necessities of a normal individual and/or social life, as a result of a deficiency, either congenital or not, in his physical or mental capabilities." This definition was further broken down by the World Health Organization into the terms of impairment, disability and handicap;

> "Impairment is a generic term that embraces any disturbance or interference with the normal structure and functioning of the body, including the systems of mental function. It is characterized by a permanent or transitory psychiatric, physiological or anatomical loss or abnormality...
> Disability is the loss or reduction of functional ability and activity that is consequent upon impairment... Handicap is the disadvantage that is consequent upon impairment and disability. It represents the social and environmental consequence to the individual stemming from the presence of impairments and disability. Handicaps are not characteristic of individuals, but are socially defined."[1]

1 Health and Welfare Canada, Disabled Persons in Canada, Ottawa: Ministry of Supply and Services Canada, Cat. no. HZ4-1/1980 E, Jan. 1981, p. 6

The numbers of disabled persons in Canada are approximately 2.3 million people, or 9.8% of the population. The following chart gives a breakdown of the distribution of disabled persons in Canada.

Figure 1. Distribution of Disability in Canada, 1979.



Of these people it is estimated that 50 to 90% of the employable disabled population are unemployed. Furthermore the number of disabled people is increasing at an alarming rate.

Added to these figures are those large numbers of people who carry a social barrier to employment, such as welfare recipients re-entering the work force, the ex-alcoholic, the ex-offender, and the mentally restored. These people represent the socially disadvantaged population who experience a similar obstacle to employment as the disabled person, namely the attitudinal barrier.

There have been many studies done outlining the obstacles disabled/disadavantaged people face in seeking employment, including the report of the special parliamentary committee on the disabled, "Obstacles". Generally they fall into the following categories and concerns:

- architectural barriers
- institutions practices
- lack of recruitment processes
- lack of top management support/commitment concerns that insurance rates will increase dramatically
- modification at work sites will be costly
- safety records will be poor
- productivity will decline
- other employees will not accept the handicapped.

There also have been some major studies[4] addressing these concerns. (See Figure 1 of Personnel Journal, "Countdown on Hiring the Handicapped", March 1978).

However there still remains a strong attitudinal barrier for employing disabled/disadvantaged persons. Perhaps a look at the historical perspective would help clarify the basis for this strong barrier. As outlined in a joint study by COPOH (Coalition of Provincial Organizations of the Handicapped and the National Union of Provincial Government) Manitoba employees, the concept of integration and full participation of the disabled community originated thousands of years ago. Homer, the Greek epic poet was blind. Ceasar managed to conquer western Europe and was not disadvantaged because of his epilepsy. However during The Crusade (1000-1200) large numbers of people were disabled, resulting in the Christian Church taking action. Some of that action was in the form of creating asylums, forming a basis for long term method of dealing with disability - out of sight, out of mind.

The Judeo-Christian ethic of physical defects being a just compensation for sin was perpetuated by this institutionalization. With the advent of the industrial revolution the new economic structure highly valued and relied on the most productive members of society, disregarding the disabled. The care of the "destitute" was left to Christian charity and an emerging social welfare system administered

4 Personnel Journal, "Countdown on Hiring the Handicapped", March 1978.

by the Church. By the end of World War I there was the beginning of the recognition of the need for a social justice system through legislation, however this was still closely linked to charity, and a welfare oriented social allowance system, with its disregard of the person and capability of the disabled/disadvantaged individual, and its inherent stigma. That stigma is still very present today, and as E. Goffman states, "By definition, of course, we believe that the person with a stigma is not quite human. On this assumption we exercise varieties of discrimination, through which we effectively, if often unthinkingly, reduce his life chances."[5]

This stigma and charity model has cast the role of the disabled/disadvantaged person into that of a second class citizen, dependent and helpless. Their role as a consumer is ignored. Information about new technical devices, products etc. are rarely transmitted through regular channels, instead being distributed mainly to medical and social service professionals.

The disabled person is often represented by a child in the media, such as Timmy in Dickens' Christmas Carol. Or there is a tendency to represent a relationship between physical abnormalities and character flaws in fictional characters. Few people have access to accurate information about disabilities. Ignorance leads to false assumptions and ill-defined fears, which in turn leads to avoidance behaviours. Unfortunately this avoidance behaviour has been translated into hiring policies that exclude or limits large segments of the population.

Where do we go from here? (There is a definite need to break down attitudinal systemic barriers. This can be done either structurally by imposing quotas, and/or collaboratively, with employers, disabled/disadvantaged people, labour, and the rehabilitation communities. The following gives an outline of some things that have been done.

Federally:

- Public Works has a program to retrofit federally owned and leased buildings so as to provide full access to facilities and services for disabled persons;
- sign language service is provided by Secretary of State;
- an advisory committee to the President of Treasury Board on employment of disabled citizens has been established;
- the establishment of policies on the provision of technical work aids and the use of information budgets to meet the needs of disabled persons;

5 E. Goffman, Stigma.

- the appointment in department and agencies of coordinators of service to disabled/disadvantaged people;
- incentive programs for the employment of disabled/disadvantaged people;
- Outreach programs.

Provincially: (in Ontario)

- the establishment of the Handicapped Employment Program in the Ministry of Labour;
- consultative service to employer;
- consultative service to organized labour;
- developing a model for local coordination of trans- portation, aids provision referral to employment, professional service to employers etc.;
- information service and resource center;
- professional outreach;
- research, policy development and interministerial coordination activities;
- internal program of equal opportunity within the Ministry of Labour;
- "Experience" student programs.

Locally:

- different employment models have been adopted in local communities. The Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto has an equal opportunity program, which in its report published in October 1983 states a summary.

Summary evaluation of strategies that worked; the following strategies were important:

- organizational commitment;
- cooperation of unions;
- "Ownership" of the project by all Metropolitan departments;
- legislation, in the form of an expanded Ontario Human Rights Code;
- timing, the impetus that came from the 1981 International Year of the Disabled;
- adequate financial resources, particularly in the initial developmental stages following for risk-taking and flexibility;
- commitment to the provision of reasonable accommodation, i.e., funding for technical aids and worksite renovations;
- Outreach recruitment strategies;
- "Hiring for Success", the Summer Employment Program;
- pre-placement and post-placement assistance to line supervisors;

- employee education and high corporate visibility;
- public visibility;
- availability in Metropolitan Toronto of public transportation for the disabled, housing, and other support services that make the Metropolitan community attractive for disabled person to live and work in;
- high performance expectations for disabled employees combined with normalization strategies that avoided the creation of job ghettos;
- administration mechanisms that reduced red tape for operating departments so that the referral of a disabled employee was made as easy as possible;
- firm but polite refusal by the employer to become involved in a multitude of other problems a disabled employee might have. This merits specific mention because employers quite frequently find themselves embroiled in a number of concerns on behalf of their disabled employees. Metro's disabled employees were expected to be self-directing and self-motivating; they were responsible for arriving for work on time, securing their own transportation and making their own arrangements for any support services that they might require.

Cost benefits

The annual payback to the taxpayer of hiring a disabled individual: The cost to the community of subsidizing services for disabled individuals is difficult to assess as the delivery and funding of these services is split between federal, provincial, and municipal governments. Whether a disabled individual is employed or not, special housing units and transportation subsidies are required.

The benefit to the taxpayer of hiring disabled persons does not lie in the possibility of eliminating services now provided for the disabled. Rather, it lies in reducing direct and indirect subsidies for income maintenance programs, health care, etc., and in the fact that previously unemployed persons would be paying taxes and contributing to the G.N.P. The community benefits when its disabled members are working and contributing to the tax base rather than requiring social assistance.

What follows is an estimation of the potential annual "payback" to the taxpayer of hiring a single disabled individual who presently collects Family Benefits and lives

in a subsidized Metro Housing Company unit. All figures are in 1983 dollars.

Direct Costs to the taxpayer of subsidies to disabled individuals:

1. Family benefits:
   A single disabled individual who is not employed would collect up to a maximum Family Benefit of $382.00 per month. Annual cost: $4,584.00.
2. Subsidized housing:
   A single disabled individual on Family Benefits, living in Metro Housing Company unit for the disabled, (wheelchair accommodation only) would pay rent at a sheltered rate of $85.00 per month.

The maximum rent in older Metro Housing Company units is $314.00 (In newer units, rent is geared to income and assets.) Thus, the disabled individual would be subsidized at a rate of $229.00 per month. This is over and above the cost of providing low-cost housing stock for the disabled. Annual Cost: $2,748.00

3. Health Care Costs:
   A single disabled individual on Family Benefits pays no OHIP. In effect, the taxpayer subsidizes such persons for OHIP payments. Rates are now at $28.35 per month. Annual cost: $340.20

The disabled individual on Family Benefits receives his or her medication at no personal cost. Costs vary with the disability but can be as high as $200.00 a month. Total costs for general Welfare/Family Benefits recipients in Ontario were in excess of $25 million in the 1982-83 fiscal year, but this figure is not broken out for disabled persons. Therefore, no annual cost estimate is included here.

Total estimated annual costs:

Family Benefits		$4,584.00
Housing Subsidy		2,748.00
OHIP		340.00
	TOTAL	$7,675.00

**Based on a Metro Housing Unit

Direct benefit to the taxpayer of employing a disabled individual:

1. Family Benefits:
   No Family Benefits would be paid to a disabled individual who is working. Annual Savings: $4,584.00.

2. Subsidized Housing:
   A single disabled individual who is working would pay the maximum rent of $314.00 per month in older Metro Housing Company units, and rent geared to income and assets in new units. Minimum Annual Savings: $2,748.00.
3. Health Care Costs:
   The working individual would either pay his or her own OHIP or his employer would pay it. Annual Savings: $340.00.
4. Taxes:
   A single disabled individual who is working and earning an annual salary of:
   $17,631.00 would pay taxes of $3,130.40;
   $19,982.00 would pay taxes of $3,835.00;
   $22,926.00 would pay taxes of $4,860.70.

These salaries are actual ones earned by Metro employees who are disabled, and are representative of individuals employed in clerical, technical, and service occupations.

Taking the average annual tax figure of $3,942.03 (average annual tax paid by the above 3 individuals), the annual benefit to the community would be an increase in the tax base of $3,942.03 for a single disabled individual who was working.

The above scenario would produce an estimated annual payback to the taxpayer of $11,614.23 if a single disabled individual on Family Benefits was employed for one year.

Family Benefits Not Paid	$ 4,584.00
Housing Subsidies Not Paid	2,748.00
Health Care Costs Not Paid	340.00
Estimated Average Annual Tax Contribution	3,942.03
	$11,614.23

Jean Pigott, in a report of the task force on employers and disabled persons, "Linking for Employment" outlines a model of a dynamic involvement of employers and disabled persons.

"To: - increase employers' familiarity with the abilities of disabled persons;
- increase disabled persons' familiarity with employment opportunities and the dynamics of the labour market;
- increase opportunities for relevant employment related training of disabled persons in regular education or work settings;
- increase the opportunity for career placement of disabled persons in competitive employment".

In essence this report stresses stronger linkages between disabled persons, rehabilitation community and employers, and that an active responsible role is assumed by each. The report outlines some possible dynamic models.

What we have found at LINE 1000

At LINE 1000 we have a model maximizing the collective knowledge and resources of agencies, employers and the disabled/disadvantaged people. We strive for quality and individualized service for these groups. We enjoy active participation on our board by representatives of public and private sectors, of the Council of the Disabled, representatives from both small and large employers, Board of Trade, City of Ottawa, as well as agency participation, in order to promote interaction between concerned parties on policy level. Our disadvantaged/disabled client is referred to us from a social agency engaged in a rehabilitation process, or from the local Canada Employment Centres. Collaboratively we have discussed and worked upon an assessment tool which we are in the process of studying while utilizing it. The Royal Ottawa Hospital of Ottawa in administering this pilot project, and our referring agencies have found this tool useful in focusing on need employment criteria. The tools used are the Functional Assessment Inventory, and the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scale. This pilot study is in its early stages so one cannot comment upon it at length at this point in time. The main point is that people are collaborating upon the definition of a need, and a way to attempt to answer that need.

With employers we use an essential physical demand to assess their work place. This tool has been developed by the Ontario Ministry of Labour (see Diagram III) and is available from them. As well as analyzing the necessary requirements for a job it also helps employers to see their work in a different light, and perhaps add to a more creative approach to their companies' current way of doing things.

Tools are just a support to people to get a job done. What is really essential is there is good matching done between the needs of the employer client and the needs and abilities of the referred client. How this can be done is through good marketing, and knowing your product. In this case our product is the potential of people. (For a fuller discourse on different disabilities and how to manage them please refer to a reference article noted at the end of this paper.) And the core to effective marketing is a knowledge of the buyers' needs, and ability to fill them. The employer must be convinced this product (in this case the person) is the one that can fill his needs.

Implicit in our marketing is the assumption that choice is better than non-choice. It just makes good business sense to consider all your options, paticulary when some options you may have overlooked have proven to be quite worthwile in other sectors. Affirmative Action programs have been implemented to help make employers more fully aware of their choices, and any possible unconsidered attitudinal barrier that may be hindering employers from

utilizing their full range of choices. Other countries have opted for mandatory legislation for employment of the disabled/disadvantaged. We, in Canada, have the option of utilizing more collaborative efforts to successfully employ the disabled/disadvantaged individual. The choice is ours- now what can you do?

FOOTNOTES

1. Health and Welfare Canada, Disabled Persons in Canada, Ottawa: Ministry of Supply and Services Canada, cat. no. HZ4-1/1980 E, Jan. 1981, p. 6
2. IBID, pp. 7 & 8
3. Canada, Obstacle - Report of the Social Committee on the Disabled and the Handicapped, Ottawa: Ministry of Supply and Services, 1981, pp. 31
4. Personnel Journal, "Countdown on Hiring the Handicapped", March, 1978.
5. E. Goffman, Stigma
6. Pigott, J., Linking for Employment, A Report on the Task Force on Employers and Disabled Persons
7. City of Toronto, Equal Employment Opportunity, An Action Project of the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto, pp. 34, 35 , 36 & 37.

ADVANCES IN DECISION COUNSELLING - 1984*

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For years I have been occupied with counsellor training. I have been at this long enough to see several training approaches come and go. At present, most counsellor training models can be categorized as either humanistic or behavioristic, or a combination of these two orientations. In their more "pure" form, humanistic training models stress the helping relationship feelings and values, and the experiencing process for both counsellor and client. The behavioristic training model places emphasis on the practice and measurement of specific skills and cognitive strategies and on teaching trainees how to set up specific behavior learning schedules for clients.

In recent years there has been a certain merging of the humanistic and behavioristic models into what I call the technological or linear stage training models. This should not surprise us too much inasmuch as contemporary social life is being increasingly penetrated by technology per se and by the mentality which accompanies it.

There are some good features of the technological model such as focus on observables, systematization of instruction, and high tech learning aids such as computers and feedback via videotape. However, there are also reasons why we should be worried about unbounded enthusiasm for the technological training model. I will organize the remainder of my discussion around what I regard as potential negative features of the technological model, and their remedy. Hereafter, I use the terms technologicial and linear stage interchangeably.

Critique

A technological training model has several prominent features which can have positive humanistic value but can also influence training (and counselling) in the direction of depersonalization and materialistic efficiency. Example features include:

1. Explicit goals, skills, and means of achieving goals and skills are emphasized.
2. Measurement, evaluation procedures and accountability are stresssed.
3. Training format is highlighted by rational principles and logical organization with skills ordered into sequences and hierarchies. Learning is by increments.

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* Adapted from a plenary address at the National Consultation on Vocational Counselling, Ottawa, January 1984.

4. A science base for the training model is held to be desirable.
5. Large units of learning are reduced to micro-behaviors.

Technological models of counsellor training present both the counselling process and the method of training as a linear set of stages, ranging from three stages to nine stages, depending upon the model. Some models do provide for feedback loops and step-back. However, the overriding feature of these models is that they are sequenced, step by step progressions from point X to point Y with as much efficiency as possible.

Features such as those I have just mentioned are solid evidence of the technocratic mentality at work. There is no doubt in my mind that this model is a big step ahead of models of "doing nothing", "doing what comes naturally", "counsellors are born, not made", "warm and acceptant" model, "trait and factor" model and so on. Training is enhanced by a degree of explicitness, planfulness, goal-stating, behavioral practice and so on.

What do I worry about? In my opinion, we should worry that the mentality which constructs the technocratic training model is dangerously close to bureaucratic consciousness and to paneconomic consciousness which concentrates on things rather than people, on quantity rather than quality, on behavior rather than meaning.

Linear stage models of training are designed to inculcate a rational, step-by-step mind-set in trainees. On the positive side, this is in the name of "effectiveness". On the other hand, "efficiency" training experiences act to alienate trainees from the reality of everyday decision-making and action. Clients live in the intuitive, unconscious norm-determined reality which we refer to as the common-sense world. Training which leads counsellors to adopt a technical vocabulary (counselese), a rational template by means of which they try to mold the lives of other people, and a conviction that scientific knowledge is superior to tacit, everyday knowledge, is, in my opinion, quite likely to alienate trainees from the world of the everyday. My claim for counselling is that it should be an integrating influence in the lives of those who receive it. Certainly many people do experience themselves as displaced from their contexts and from other people and experience internal conflict as well. Counselling should help individuals return or move on to contexts and states of mind where they experience integration. In other words, counselling itself should be a process of social integration.

First, individuals experience their own lives as fluid, pluralistic, in-flux, dialectical, even chance-like. In other words, everyday experiencing is intuitive and tacit as well as rational and explicit. Therefore, counsellors should not be taught to impose a linear, logically sequenced

decision-making or behavior-changing framework on client's experiencing without regard for the intuitive way in which clients experience their own lives. My claim is for a rational-intuitive balance in the counselling process, not that either should exclude the other.

Second, a primary source of self-esteem and personal motivation for individuals is social support. A technological model reinforces logical analysis, efficiency, segmentation, hierarchical expertise, and productivity - factors which are more likely to work against social support than for it. In some significant way individuals need to belong with other people. A person should have, so to speak, a recognized place in society which contributes to that person's sense of positive identity. This may be the "high touch" phenomenon of technological culture. Counselling should contribute to social support.

Third, it is the counsellor's consciousness which regulates, or fails to regulate, the movement of the counselling process and the counselling interview. Technological models of counsellor training tend to develop a reliance in trainees upon external guidance in the form of techniques, recipies, scales, and other explicit guidelines for performance. This reliance is counterintuitive and causes trainees to ignore or deny more fluid structures such as improvization, tacit knowing, intuition, metaphoric thinking, chance, and serendipity. These fluid structures are rooted in wide-awake consciousness and not in external rules or guidelines.

Fourth, the technologicl model and its accompanying mentality fosters segmented thinking, that is making sure that each thing is carefully defined, reduced to its elements, and contained within its proper category or boundary. This tends to promote a carefully defined role of the counsellor - one that does not overstep compartments and boundaries. Unfortunately, while this permits a good adaptation to a bureaucracy, it leads counsellors to overlook, avoid, or fail to utilize and cooperate with other aspects and persons in the client's greater social context.

Fifth, the values and principles which underlie the technological model are not necessarily in the best interests of human self-esteem and social belongingness. Some examples are:

1. Hierarchical expertise is required for the most precise execution of techniques. (Alienation from folk wisdom and natural social support?)
2. Technical decisions are more efficient than personal decisions. (Robotics?)
3. Reducing wholes to parts improves prediction and control. (Is "wholeness" important?)
4. Objective measurement is preferred over subjective judgement. (Scientism?)

5. Anonymity is valued. Contemporary is attributed to office holders and certificate holders rather than to persons. (Depersonalization).

Now I will present a different model of counselling - a social integration model which has implications for training counsellors quite different from those negative implications associated with the technological model.

Social Integration Model of Counselling

The process of making decisions, solving problems, and engaging in goal-setting actions within the context of social reality and personal potential can be illuminated through reference to the Social Integration Model of Counselling.

Basic Argument. The well-being of any society, community, institution or other cultural sub-group is directly related to the degree to which members are integrated in ways which are constructive for the society and meaningful for the individual members. Social integration takes place within such areas of social life as work, leisure, personal relations (including family) and education (including training). The socially integrated individual is one who can say, with reference to work, love, and play: "I am where I want to be, doing what I want to do."

Most people who are engaged in work, leisure and satisfying personal relations are more socially integrated than not. A few fortunate members of society can say with conviction: "I am where I wish to be, doing what I wish to do," and can be said to experience a high degree of social integration.

Being unemployed, or being in a state of disrupted personal relations, or not having access to leisure activities, or not having access to training or education results in serious flaws in social integration. Such terms as demoralization, alienation, estrangement, helplessness, withdrawal, and cynicism are used to describe the ways in which individuals experience lack of social integration.

Social integration (and disintegration) is a complex and far-reaching concept. On a broad plane it refers to political and economic structures which can, for the most part, only be influenced by nation-state and international economic negotiation and legislation. Counsellors, of course, cannot directly influence the economical and political structural changes which affect social integration at the level of individual experience. At this broad level each counsellor can only act as a "citizen of conscience."

At the level of individual experience, however, the counsellor is often very much an agent of influence regarding social integration. What I am pointing out is that when a counsellor assists a client to achieve a degree of satisfaction in any of the four fundamental areas of life: work,

leisure, personal relations, learning, then the counsellor is directly addressing social integration.

When an unemployed person finds a job, an obvious step toward social integration is taken. When an unemployed person is not able to find a job but does get access to training or education, then a step toward social integration is taken. When an unemployed person is not able to get immediate employment, not enter training, but is able to participate in voluntary work or engage in meaningful leisure activities, then a step toward social integration is taken. When a person is not successful with any of the above, but is still able to find support (personal relations) within the counselling interview, or within a support group, or within peer self-help groups, then a step toward social integration is taken.

Social integration, with emphasis upon participation which is both constructive for society and meaningful for the individual can be a guiding concept for counsellors in all practical activities.

Wheel As Metaphor. In constructing the social integration model of counselling I have chosen the wheel as an organizing metaphor. I use this metaphor for the following reasons. First, the counselling process is quite often circular more than linear. The various tasks of problem-solving such as clarification, identification of alternatives and solution implementation are related to each other in a recurring, dialectical or back and forth fashion rather than in a logical sequential fashion. Second, this circular, recurring process is organized around a center which is the counsellor's consciousness of what is actually occurring in the interview. Finally, wheel metaphor symbolizes both organization and chance.

Many specialists in counselling, problem-solving, and decision-making portray these processes as idealized, rational sequences in which counsellors and clients should move in an orderly fashion from point A to the end point. While I certainly agree that it is desirable to achieve a degree of organization in counselling, I also think that it is just as important to recognize the recurring, back and forth nature of problem-solving as it actually occurs in real life rather than as represented in text books. Also, it is best, I believe, to admit that chance-factors may play an important part in decision-making and problem-solving. A client "just happens" to talk to a friend and what she learns in this conversation greatly influences her decision. A counsellor, while visiting in a dentist's office chances to read an article in a magazine which gives him an influential idea to use with a particular client. Thus, I intend the wheel to symbolize both organizations and chance in the counselling process.

SOCIAL INTEGRATION MODEL OF COUNSELLING

In the Social Integration model of counselling, each of eight counselling tasks are linked to each other through

consciousness of the counsellor. The tasks are supported by communication, data, and self-esteem enhancement qualities of the counselling interview. The entire process revolves around an "existential core" of values, serendipity, tacit knowledge, improvization, and chance factors. In this model the counsellor's consciousness of the counselling process plays a vital role. Through the mediating influence of consciousness, the counsellor is able to assist the client through the process and is able to flexibly go back and forth between tasks as needed. Counsellors recognize the importance of reflecting on what they do in the counselling process and how they do it. Learning to do something better by reflecting upon it is given as much importance as learning to do something better by "measuring" it.

Movement through problem-solving or decision-making is not necessarily linear, but rather circular and dialectical. Further, the subtle nuances and enigmatic factors of decision-making are included as significant rather than denied or ruled out as is the case in purist methods of rational decision-making.

In the Social Integration model of counselling the counsellor provides communication structure, task structure, and self-enhancement structure, while the client provides most, but not all, of the data. Other data are provided by the counsellor, while some data are encountered by chance. Together, the client and the counsellor co-constitute the reality of decision-making not as it is explained abstractly, but as it is experienced in the pragmatic flux of life.

After Thought

It has been my intention to draw attention to the interweaving of technological mentality and counselling process. Also I believe that both the training of counsellors and actual counselling should pay more attention to maintaining (or restoring) social linkages and support in everyday life. Is it possible to be both expert and natural? Why do we say so little about the counsellor's consciousness?

OPENING DOORS: KEYS TO CAREER PLANNING

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INTRODUCTION

During the past few years, career planning practitioners have been faced with a number of changing conditions which have affected their abilities to provide up-to-date career planning services to their various client groups. Two of these changes are:

A. the use of advanced technology to both deliver services in conventional workshop settings, and to reach out to a whole new client group - via home video and T.V. broadcasting networks;
B. the growing need to hand over the delivery of some services to paraprofessionals working to meeting the career development needs of their particular communities.

As a result, there is need for career planning programs and support materials that keep pace with the client's growing technological sophistication and their desires for self-responsibility in planning their career directions.

The Career Services Branch of Alberta Manpower has created an audio-visual career planning program called Opening Doors: Keys to Career Planning that meets both of these needs. The program is primarily designed for adults (age 18 years and older) with at least a grade nine reading ability level who are facing a career decision but have little or no familiarity with career planning concepts. A secondary target audience is high school students, not necessarily ready to make a career decision, but needing to know about the process of career decison-making.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Today, more than ever, the world of work is changing radically. Occupational fields are being altered dramatically in scope and economic conditions are producing fluctuating employment rates. People have many more career decisions to make today than in the past; not only in terms of frequency of decision but also in terms of the kinds of decisions.

According to Super's (1984) life-stage theory of career development, people play a variety of roles (child, student, worker, spouse ... "leisurite," annuitant, patient) as they mature and they play them in a variety of theatres (home, community, school, workplace, retirement community). A person's occupational role may change several times during a

lifetime, as one moves through various life stages within different theatres. Typically, people play several roles simultaneously, in several theatres, and occupation, family, community and leisure all impact upon each other.

A few short years ago, the Canadian economy promised a myriad of occupational opportunities to all sectors of the population. Today's shrinking job markets and increasing demand for continuous job skill upgrading means that the typical career path of an adult worker looks significantly different from that of her/his parents. While still covering developmental stages and tasks delineated by career development theorists (see Chart One), the sequencing of roles may look like this:

child
student
leisurite*
worker
student*
spouse
student*
parent
leisurite*

and so on

OPENING DOORS: KEYS TO CAREER PLANNING

One of the central tasks of the career practitioner is to teach clients about the career planning process. With an increasing demand for this service and in the absence of a qualified career development professional, other related professionals and community workers without extensive career planning backgrounds are taking over this task. Up-to-date audio-visual materials made in Canada that do this in a step-by-step fashion are not yet widely available.

Opening Doors addresses the career planning concerns faced by people in various stages of career development and shows how the career planning model can be applied to different kinds of career decisions. A family reunion is the dramatic device used to illustrate the following career transition:

mid-career change - from full time worker in one occupational field (banking) to part-time worker in two different fields (farming and newspaper writing);

* the roles of student and leisurite in some form are becoming recurring themes.

CHART ONE

Super's (1957) Stages of Vocational Development (From Late Adolescence to Retirement):

2. Exploration (15 to 24)
   - general exploration of work

3. Establishment (25 to 44)
   - seeking a permanent occupation

4. Maintenance (45 to 65)
   - continuation in one's chosen occupation

5. Decline (65 to Death)
   - decline and cessation of vocational activity

Schien's (1978) Stages and Tasks in the Career Cycle (From Late Adolescence to Retirement):

2. Entry into World of Work (16 to 25)
   - learn how to look for a job

3. Basic Training (16-25)
   - develop self-confidence

4. Full membership in Early Career (17 to 30)
   - perform effectively

5. Full Membership, Midcareer (+25)
   - gain independence

6. Midcareer Crisis (35-45)
   - assess realistically future career potentials

7.A Late Career in Nonleadership Role (40+)
   - retain technical competence
   - develop supervisory/ managerial skills

7.B Late Career in Leadership Role (40+)
   - handle high level political situations and responsibilities

8. Decline and Disengagement (40 to Retirement)
   - find new sources of satisfaction in hobbies, family, social/community activities

9. Retirement
   - maintain identity and self-worth without a full-time job

re-entry into paid workforce - from full-time homemaker to full-time worker in retail sales;
first real career decision - from high school student to university student/full-time worker/leisurite;
job/occupation change - from full-time worker in one occupation (sheet metal) to full-time worker is same or different occupation.

The overall goals of the nine videotape programs are that viewers will be able:

1. to realize that they have lifestyle/career choices and can exert some control over their futures;
2. to be aware that there is a rational, systematic way to make career decisions;
3. to understand that career development is lifelong and that this same career planning method can be used with each new career decision.

The nine videotapes (approximately 10 minutes in length each), in order, are:

Program 1 "Why Plan Your Career?" illustrates how career planning can be an effective way of dealing with change, both expected and unexpected, and how it can give the individual a greater sense of control over his/her career.
Program 2 "How to Plan Your Career" defines the terms "job", "occupation", and "career;" illustrates these different kinds of career decisions; and gives an overview of the career planning process.
Program 3 "What Do You Want?" addresses the first step of career planning: gathering self-knowledge and defining career goals.
Program 4 "Exploring Your Options" deals with the second step: discovering as many career options (alternatives) as possible that relate to the career decision being made, and gathering as much information as possible about each option.
Program 5 "Career Planning Creatively" illustrates how career planners don't always have to accept the career options that currently exist. It is possible to create new ones.
Program 6 "Choosing Your Best Options" shows how emotions play an important role in career planning, and how to deal with problems people commonly encounter when they are making career decisions.
Program 7 "Action Planning" explains how to translate plans, into action, and give tips on how to carry out an action plan on schedule.
Program 8 "Looking For a Job" looks at how to deal with emotional factors often associated with the job search, and outlines the career planning tapes as they relate to job hunting.
Program 9 "The Job Interview" emphasizes the importance of thorough preparation and appropriate behaviors during the job interview.

The video-series come with support material - 5 booklets that contain various exercises related to the career planning process described. They are designed to allow for a great variety of uses in career planning and job search workshops/seminars/courses at career days/expositions/fairs, for broadcast and by individuals working on their own.

The seven session workshop format outlined in Chart Two illustrates one strategy that utilizes all nine videos and the five booklets. This workshop design has been successfully used by paraprofessionals working within a particular Alberta Community with primarily adult female re-entry clients.

CONCLUSION

These programs convey a considerable amount of information in an interesting, lively and motivating fashion. They present a structure approach to career planning that involves a straightforward decison-making and goal-setting model accepted by most career practitioners. Their effectiveness lies in showing the viewer how these concepts can be applied to the lives of people in various roles - high school graduates, bank managers, sheet metal workers, re-entry women - in working through different kinds of career decisions.

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A special thanks to Rosemary Nogue and Judy Brown, career consultants with the Career Services Branch, Alberta Manpower.

CHART TWO

SESSION	OBJECTIVES	SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES	SUGGESTED MATERIALS
One	. to introduce participants to one another and the workshop leader(s) . to debunk some common career planning misconceptions . to provide an overview of the career planning process . to define important career planning concepts	. introductory dyad exercise . individual written exercise . audio-visual prompt and large group debrief . audio-visual prompt and small group/individual exercise	Booklet #1 "What Do You Want?" video #1 "Why Plan Your Career?" video #2 "How to Plan Your Career"
Two	. to identify sources of self-information . to begin gathering self-information	. audio-visual prompt and small group exercise . individual exercises	video #3 "What do You Want?" Booklet #1
Three	. to continue gathering self-information	. audio-visual and small group exercises	
Four	. to introduce a career goal setting process . to identify sources of information about the world of work	. audio-visual prompt with debrief . individual exercises . homework assignments	video # 4 "Exploring Your Options" Booklet # 1 Booklet # 2
Five	. to explore crative career planning options	. audio-visual prompt with debrief	video # 5 "Career Planning Creativity"

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CHART TWO (con't)

SESSION	OBJECTIVES	SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES	SUGGESTED MATERIALS
	. to introduce a decision-making process . to explore emotional factors involded in career planning	. individual exercises . audio-visual prompt with small group exercise	Booklet # 3 "Deciding" video # 6 "Choosing Your Best Options"
Six	. to introduce an action planning process . indeividual exercises	. audio-visual prompt and debrief	video # 7 "Action Planning"
Seven	. to introduce a job search system . to build skills in resume writing and job interviewing . to review/reinforce all participants' goal statements and action plans	. audio-visual prompt with debrief . role-play activities . large/small group discussion	video # 8 "Looking for a Job" video # 9 "Job interviewing" Booklet "Job Search Handbook"

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COUNSELLING VICTIMS OF JOB LOSS

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INTRODUCTION

The victims of permanent layoffs and plant closings tend to be mature adults with long histories of successful employment, often with the same company. It is likely their present job skills have limited market value because of technological and economic changes and their lack of academic skills limits access to retraining for new technologies. It is also likely that those who do have needed skills are competing with younger workers in an employer's market.

Unless appropriate measures are taken, the future for such job loss victims is indeed gloomy, since despite occasional prediction to the contrary, there is little reason to believe that the employment picture will improve dramatically in the years ahead.

Unfortunately, notions about unemployment, and who is responsible for it, die hard.

In frictional unemployment, the assumption is that those seeking work and those seeking workers have just not found one another, and unemployed workers bear some responsibility for their joblesssness. The majority of workers have traditionally dealt with frictional unemployment by using networks in their specialties or industries to find other jobs. (See Table 1)

Cyclical unemployment, on the other hand, is temporary - there is expectation that the jobs will be there again. In many occupations, cyclical unemployment is a way of life to which workers and their families have adapted (as in the auto industry).

Many people who in the past managed to cope with frictional and cyclical unemployment are now faced with structural unemployment. Others are facing unemployment for the first time in their lives.

The dilemma facing displaced workers is that in frictional and cyclical unemployment hope exists that there really are jobs to be found; hope that companies which laid off workers will rehire; hope that plants which have closed will reopen; hope that business will improve and companies will expand their work forces.

In structural unemployment, there is little hope. The jobs are gone for good because of technological changes, forcing competition, market decline, etc. (See Table 1).

Structural unemployment has traditionally referred to youth, the disadvantaged and the "hard core" unemployed. In recognition of their special needs, special programs and services were developed, and we continue to look for ways to improve their access to employment opportunities, as shown by some of the presentations at this conference.

But the new victims of structural unemployment also require special assistance, because many of them are now faced with severe problems, for which they are not responsible, with which they are unable to cope, and which limit their employment opportunities.

Effective counselling of these job loss victims requires understanding of their "special situations and unique needs" (Shifron, Dye, Shifron, 1983, p. 528). Without such understanding, counsellors may face some dilemmas, too. In their attempt to help, counsellors may be using measures which are suitable for victims of frictional or cyclical unemployment. For example, when people lose jobs they are usually encouraged to look for others. If this is done in a depressed market, unsuccessful job hunters are likely to experience negative feelings about themselves. The greater the involvement in unsuccessful job search, the greater are the feelings of rejection (Swinburne, 1981, Amundsen and Borgen, 1982).

Also, some attitudes and behaviours of displaced workers may cause counsellors to make assumptions which "pigeonhole" those workers. An example is unemployed heads of families who must weigh their desire to get back into the workforce and provide for their families against opportunities that may be severely limited - low-paying jobs that offer little improvement over unemployment benefits or temporary jobs, which even if they pay well, offer only limited security.

The greatest dilemma is the complexity of the problems faced by displaced workers, their families, and ultimately, their communities. Providing counselling assistance is not a panacea, but counsellors do have important roles.

The three major counselling functions are: working with clients, developing programs to reach wider constituencies, and initiating change through social action (Schlossberg, 1977).

Each of these may be approached in terms of three intervention categories:

1. Crisis intervention is the kind of counselling we are most often asked to do because it is usually a crisis such as job termination which precipitates the need for counselling. Its purpose is quick amelioration of a severe unmanageable condition such as emergency housing.
2. Maintenance usually follows crisis intervention and is meant to provide the basic needs individuals require to sustain themselves. Welfare and other public assistance funds are examples.
3. Developmental interventions are meant to improve the competencies, resources and earning capacities of individuals. Skills training is an example, but only in growth area or field. (Skill training with poor job prospects is a maintenance function, particulary when trainees receive training allowances).

These counsellor functions and intervention categories are necessary components of a helping process for displaced workers. The objective of such a process must be to help them cope effectively with the problems created by their unemployment.

The key word is coping, which is not to be interpreted as passive acceptance or resignation. Lazarus (1974) defines coping as

> "problem solving efforts to be made by an individual when the demands he faces are highly relevant to his welfare (that is, a situation of considerable jeopardy or promise) and when those demands tax his adaptive resources" (p. 250-1).

It is evident that a whole range of skills are required for individuals to be able to cope with the changes in their lives, from the time job loss is imminent to the time they have resolved their problems in ways which are satisfactory to them. An aspect of coping processes is in regard to change over time (Folkman, 1982).

In counselling plant closure victims over a period of several years we became aware of a pattern in their coping strategies which had many of the elements of Taylor's theory of adult learning. Taylor (1980, 1981) identifies the issues concerned with learning in regard to a change process, which we have found to be useful in mapping out the kind and timing of interventions and the provision of specific resources.

THE COUNSELLING PROCESS

The process of counselling job loss victims will be examined within the framework of this theory. Each phase of the process will be discussed in terms of:

1. the issues and/or job problems confronting displaced workers;
2. the coping skills required to resolve the issues and find solutions to the problems;
3. the kinds and timing of interventions and resources.

Phase I - Divergence

Taylor calls this phase divergence because of the disorientation in thinking processes experienced by people. This phase is also characterized by feelings of confusion, intense anxiety, denial, disbelief, fear, anger, and depression. Withdrawal from others, absorption in looking for the causes of the crisis, and finding immediate solutions may also be involved.

Comparisons have been made between job loss and the grieving process described by Kubler-Ross (1969) which included denial, anger, depression, bargaining, and eventual

acceptance (Finley and Lee, 1981; Amundsen and Borgen, 1982; Kirsch, 1983). Hayes (1976) describes the initial reaction as shock, surprise, fear, and a feeling of injury.

Similar symptoms are found in people who survive natural disasters and other crises. The difference is that while disaster victims begin with a traumatic event such as a tornado or hurricane, the onset in job loss may be ambiguous information coming from different sources over a period of time, which exacerbates the situation. Often attempts to save jobs continue to the last minute. While no one wants to discourage such efforts since they are occasionally successful, the tension of uncertainty is very stressful (Snyder and Nowak, 1983; Kasl, Gore, Cobb, 1975).

Even greater stress comes from feelings of helplessness which the workers experience, and the fact that loss of employment means loss of so much else: source of income, security, identity, self-esteem, activity and interest, sense of purpose and the company of one's workmates. It means changes in individuals' faith in their capacities to work effectively and earn a living, their expectations of the future for themselves and their families, and in the way they spend their time (Hayes, 1976).

Displaced workers have little experience in dealing with bureaucracies. Basic procedures such as completing unemployment insurance forms, applying for other kinds of assistance, or even locating sources of information regarding entitlements and services, are frightening. It is ironic that the "hard core" unemployed have learned those skills and are quite competent in obtaining what they need to survive.

Those who define themselves in regard to their work, but have little hope for re-employment, or for whom the loss is a novel experience, have greater difficulty adjusting to job loss than those who have coped with job loss previously, have employment possibilities, or engage in some rewarding activities (Hayes, 1976). Those who did not like their jobs and see the loss in terms of opportunity have greater similarity to voluntary vocational counselling clients in that they were already open to considering other options. The coping skills necessary in this phase are:

1. recognizing, understanding, and accepting the emotions which are experienced;
2. perceiving that problems and feelings are not unique to them;
3. appreciating their internal strengths which help them to maximize their competence;
4. finding ways of reducing their emotional and physical distress;
5. assessing, developing and using support systems;
6. understanding and being able to deal effectively with bureaucracies.

The first problem counsellors face at this stage is to convince displaced workers that there are benefits to be obtained by using existing coping skills and developing new ones. Having managed their lives quite successfully in the past, these workers do not initially see the value of any kind of assistance program. They want jobs and all will be right once they get them!

In the Ontario Employee Assistance Program, we market the counselling programs by stressing the job search skills the workers will learn. Since it is now accepted that jobs are difficult to find, and that competition for available jobs is intense, workers realize that sharpening job search skills is beneficial. Once they are in the program, they are helped to work through the emotional issues, and begin to understand the value of developing those coping skills they had not originally considered.

In the initial interventions, the issue of self-blame must be dealt with. Counsellors can help clients understand that job loss is not the clients' fault and prepare them for recurring self-blame resulting from job search difficulties and stresses on their families resulting from unemployment. Strong support systems can modify self-blame and other emotional issues.

Determining how displaced workers managed previous stressful events in their lives can also provide some clues as to how they will deal with current problems. Those who have histories of being "self starters" seem better able to cope with the issues and mobilize themselves (Cooper, 1983). The amount of self-direction they had in their previous work and their involvement in engrossing activities outside of work are important factors (Swinburne, 1981).

There is value in having much of the counselling in this phase occur in small groups because:

- sharing their feelings in a group encourages clients to continue to do so, particulary if peer counsellors who have successfully overcome their own emotional problems are involved:
  "the greatest gains come from sharing the experience, accompanied by reciprocal understanding, acceptance, respect, and caring. In discussing common problems group members often learn of specific helpful attitudes and coping strategies from one another" (Shifron, Dye, Shifron, 1983, p.528);
- sharing their individual skills inventories in a group often results in expanded repertoires: others' skills may be recognized as their own as well. Skills exchanges can result from the exercise, which may lead to small enterpreneurships;
- fostering group development encourages support systems which can continue after the counsellors' involvement is ended, as well as the development of indigenous leadership for such systems;

- a counselling team can be used cost effectively. Such a team might consist of people with complementary skills such as one-to-one counselling, group process, job search, and knowledge of community resources.

Concrete materials relating specifically to employment are also included in the first phase. Strategies for coping with stress and with bureaucracies are included to the extent that they are needed by the clients.

Because displaced workers rarely make use of community social services (Buss & Redburn, 1983), it is important to bring representatives of such groups into contact with clients to convey information about what is available, and perhaps even encourage the agencies to provide what is needed but not yet available.

The timing of initial intervention is a critical factor. Intervention should begin as soon as possible after announcement of job terminations (Brenner & Bartell, 1983) in order to provide information on what services and resources will be available, to activate workers' existing coping skills and to start the process of acquiring new skills.

Displaced workers differ in their coping processes; some need time to recover from the shock (Swinburne, 1981), while others move quickly through the first phase. However, waiting too long to initiate interventions is dangerous, as can be verified by the literature on the negative psychological and physiological impacts of unemployment (Kirsch, 1983). Families of displaced workers also suffer if feelings are left unresolved or hidden, for some workers hide their termination from their families. Instead, families should be encouraged to share the stresses they are experiencing in order to cope with them.

> "Constructive coping skills for each family member will enable the unemployed to maintain his or her dignity, self-esteem and ability to join the working force when employment becomes available" (Shifron, Dye, Shifron, 1983).

To summarize, in the first phase, emotional issues are confronted, coping resources of individuals are identified, support systems are set in motion, and some learning needs in regard to coping strategies are uncovered.

The transition from the divergence phase to the second, or engagement, phase is a critical point in the process. We do not know why some people are able to cope with the first-phase emotional issues and move on with their lives while others are immobilized. Branner and Abrego (1981) refer to a "letting go" point. Brenner and Bartell state that there may be a critical period following job loss during which adaptation either does or does not occur. Regarding the transition between these two phases, Taylor's research

(1981) showed that "naming" the issues without feeling inadequate allowed the persons to move on. It is also possible that one's internal and external support systems play a critical role. Self-esteem and positive self messages (Brammer & Abrego, 1981), along with mutual support groups (Perfetti & Bingham, 1983) and other social support (Gore, 1978), seem to be the factors most often cited. However, we need more information that would provide additional clues for counselling interventions.

In the engagement phase, clients become involved in learning skills required to move toward self-sufficiency once more. The first issue they face is self-assessment in terms of strengths and weaknesses: what they can build on or overcome and what they can consider that they never have in the past.

The coping skills required are:

1. examining oneself realistically and accepting both skills and limitations;
2. searching for information on a broad range of options, using all possible resources to do so;
3. using existing support systems for learning and feedback, and expanding those systems to include others who may have useful input.

Support systems are also important for maintaining the positive self-image necessary for learning, especially during a transition.

Counselling interventions in this phase should be positive, supportive and encouraging. The resources required are for self-assessment and looking at possible options. Because interaction with others is important in the learning process (Taylor, 1980), collaborative information gathering with othe group members should be encouraged. A goal for clients would be to increase their resourcefulness in meaningful time usage (Hepworth, 1980). Taylor calls this phase a "guided exploration" (1981, p. 137) - counselling interventions should reflect that.

Since clients require a variety of information from a number of sources, counsellors also perform a brokerage function during this phase.

In the third phase, convergence, alternatives identified in the previous phase are examined. Important here is practical, meaningful decision-making. Counsellors need to be alert to clients who make decisions hastily, without reflection or consulting their support system, and who may still be in the first phase. Grabbing onto quick solutions is symptomatic of that phase (Taylor, 1980).

The coping skills required are decision-related:

1. recognizing one's decision-making style;
2. analyzing the decision-making steps in relation to oneself;
3. setting short and long range goals.

Interventions in this phase are in terms of facilitating the decision-making process. This is also the appropriate time to learn job search skills since they follow the establishment of alternatives and the setting of goals.

The last phase, detachment, is the action or implementation phase. Both this and the previous phases may continue for some time. Detachment involves refining, elaborating, and applying learnings (Taylor, 1980).

The coping skills required are in action on one's decisions. This phase could be considered a test of competence: how the person is able to apply the skills learned throughout the process.

Interventions at this stage are in the nature of helping in the development of continuing support systems. Self-help groups, community economic development projects, co-operatives and self-employment possibilities are initiatives which can grow out of such systems. Counsellors may also find themselves serving as advocates for clients trying to enter training programs or looking for funding for self-help projects.

Community Process

Whatever help is provided to individuals is also the direct concern of the commmunity. Counsellors invovled in an intervention program need to work closely with colleagues in the community to be sure that all forms of necessary assistance are provided.

Discovering how the community can help displaced workers to cope is a learning process for the public. This process also seems to follow the pattern of Taylor's theory, although more research is required into how communities cope effectively with such a crisis. However, we can make some conjecture at this point. Taylor and Gavin's research (1983) now being conducted in Newfoundland fishing villages should provide some further insights.

In the divergence or disorientation phase, the first major issue a community faces is admitting the existence of a serious problem which requires attention. On one hand, community leaders often feel helpless because the problems seem so huge, involve so many people, and cut across so many levels of government. On the other hand, some still believe that the problem would be solved if the unemployed just tried harder to find jobs. It is possible that both views result from a community's lack of experience in dealing with crises. Those communities which have experience in dealing successfully with crises are better prepared for future ones (Gordus et al, 1981).

The second major issue is how human service agencies respond to problems created by unemployment. Buss and Redburn (1983) describe action options for social agencies in communities affected by plant closures. Table 2 shows the three intervention categories described earlier, what

methods are used, and what is requird to produce effective results. A preventive approach makes the greatest sense since a "safety net" can be built in to provide services and resources before problems become too complex and costly. In a layoff or closure involving a notice period, that time can be used to initiate planning for the specific kind of transitional assistance required (Gorus et al, 1981). This may result in the development of new, supplemental services and will require agencies to be proactive in seeking out individuals with problems or potential problems (Taber, Walsh, Cooke, 1979).

For services to be most effective, community co-ordination is required, especially to help those who "fall between the cracks" in regard to existing services.

> "Communities must perceive the problem, must mobilize and co-ordinate resources, must form a plan best adapted to that community's situation, and must win the support of community members in implementing that plan" (Gordus et al, 1981, p. 58).

In a competent community, the number of members lacking adequate support is reduced to a minimum (Adler, 1982).

The major issues may be resolved through preventive and co-ordinated interventions.

The transition from divergence to engagement involve adopting a developmental view. While crisis intervention and maintenance services are critical during the first phase, development is necessary if displaced workers are to be productive community members. Perhaps community competence is indicated by recognition that developmental activities are necessary once crisis intervention and maintenance services have been provided. Another measure of community competence may be the extent to which the unemployed are involved in decision-making in the community.

Determining what kinds of developmental programs are most valid for a community is the major issue in this phase. For example, a decision may have to be made whether to pursue community economic development, self-help programs or training opportunities in relation to employment needs.

Support systems must continue not only during this phase but also throughout the process because without them developmental initiatives will not be successful. Development is long-term; the rewards are not immediately seen. Therefore, support is necessary to sustain people until they are able to sustain themselves.

The issue in the convergence phase is making sure that decisions regarding adoption of development activities result in the activities that will be most meaningful for displaced workers. In a competent community, existing institutions and organizations work on a peer basis with displaced workers to develop innovative initiatives.

Detachment involves evaluating developmental programs, then refining and revising them based on how well objectives have been met.

In these phases, the role of the counsellor is to be a resource and support. However, this is probably the time when counsellors bow out and community economic development experts become the resource persons.

Future Processes

In future, counsellors will be very busy with crisis intervention and maintenance functions unless there is recognition that unemployment is a problem affecting all levels of society. Only through such recognition, it seems, will people be willing to learn what they need to be more resourceful. Innovations are required, not only in our counselling processes, but in training workers to be adaptable and in encouraging small entrepreneurships, and co-operatives.

Finally, more research is needed on the long range implications of unemployment for women. Very few studies have included women. Those that have show the effect on women to be different from that on men, particularly with regard to the heightened adversity for female heads of households (Snyder and Nowak, 1983).

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TABLE 1

TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

	TYPE	DESCRIPTION	WHO AT FAULT	WHO WILL SOLVE	JOBS	JOBS WHEN
1.	FRICTIONAL	QUITTING, FIRING, EMPLOYERS & JOB SEEKERS HAVEN'T FOUND EACH OTHER	YOUR ARE (YOU LEFT YOUR JOB)	YOU	YES	NOW
2.	CYCLICAL	TEMPORARY LAYOFFS DUE TO MARKET FLUCTUATIONS, SEASONAL UNEMPLOYMENT, LITTLE JOB SEARCH	THEY ARE (YOUR JOB LEFT YOU TEMPORARILY)	THEY (EVENTUALLY)	NOT NOW	EVENTUALLY
3.	STRUCTURAL	PERMANENT LAYOFFS, MARKET DECLINE, FOREIGN COMPETITION PLANT CLOSINGS, TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES. JOBS DON'T EXIST IN SUFFICIENT QUANTITIES IN LOCAL LABOUR MARKETS FOR EXISTING SKILLS. USED TO REFER TO YOUTH, DISADVANTAGED, "HARD CORE UNEMPLOYED"	THEY ARE (YOUR JOB LEFT YOU PERMANENTLY)	?	NO	NEVER FOR MANY

(Gordus, 1981)

TABLE 2

HUMAN SERVICES RESPONSE TO VICTIMS OF JOB LOSS

CATEGORIES OF PROGRAMS & SERVICES	METHODS USED	REQUIREMENTS	ISSUES
(1) MAINTENANCE - SUSTAIN PEOPLE WHEN THEY LACK RESOURCES TO PROVIDE FOR THEIR EXISTENCE	WELFARE AND OTHER KINDS OF ASSISTANCE, U.I., TRAINING ALLOWANCES, JOB CREATION PROJECTS	NEEDED FOR THOSE WHO DO NOT HAVE ACCESS TO OR ARE UNABLE TO PROFIT FROM DEVELOPMENTS	TEMPORARY, CAN ULTIMATELY WEAKEN RECIPIENTS AND COMMUNITY
(2) CRISIS INTERVENTION - TREATMENT OF THOSE SUFFERING SEVERE UNMANAGEABLE STRESS	EMERGENCY ASSISTANCE, REFUGE, REHABILITATION, COUNSELLING	PREVENTION AND COMPETENCY MODELS, COORDINATION OF SERVICES, INNOVATION	OFTEN TOO LATE
(3) DEVELOPMENTAL - PRODUCE LASTING IMPROVEMENTS IN CAPACITIES AND RESOURCES	EDUCATION, TRAINING LEADING TO LONG-TERM EMPLOYMENT AND EARNING CAPACITY, COMMUNITY ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	MUST BE IN CONJUNCTION WITH AREA ECONOMIC REDEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES, COMMUNITY COMPETENCY	LACK OF ACCESS, COULD REALLY BE MAINTENANCE

(Adapted from Buss and Redburn, 1983)

LIFE SKILLS TRAINING IN VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Eva Hagman
National Labour Market Board, Solna, Sweden

The topic of my presentation is Life Skills Training in Vocational Rehabilitation. I intend to describe some experiences from our introduction and application of skill training in different settings within the Swedish Employment Service. It would be presumptuous of me to believe I could make additional contributions to the Life Skills concept on a theoretical level here at the Consultation, as we are the beginners and I know that I am right now facing the experts in this field. The new aspects I can give you would more properly be expressed as "the Swedish way of launching a developmental project, trying to learn to do what the Canadians have been doing for more than a decade." After finishing my presentation I will be glad to answer any questions. I would even appreciate your reactions and possible recommendations. Please feel free to interrupt for clarification if needed; with the risk though that I might lose the thread...

Before going any further, I will take the opportunity here to express my gratitude to the very special persons who have been stimulating and supporting my work and who have even made great contributions to our developmental work in a broad sense: Stuart Conger and Vance Peavy. I can tell you that these gentlemen in a short time have become as well known to the Swedes as they are to the Canadians. Two years ago we got acquainted at a conference in Italy and while sharing job experiences it was suddenly obvious to me, that through the Life Skills Programs, the Canadians had methods and tools that we were missing and searching for.

Let me give you a short introduction to our new organization for employment counselling and vocational rehabilitation - the Employability Assessment Institutes. 81 such institutes are incorporated in the Swedish Employment Service with some 2,000 staff in total.

Until the end of 1970's, vocational rehabilitation (service by psychologists to job-seekers without marketable qualifications, physical and mental training, special training for different kinds of handicaps) was in Sweden managed by several organizations (the Government, Municipality Councils and private owners) using a wide spread of methods but were equally funded by the labour market authorities.

This system appeared to give considerable disadvantages:

- specialist resources (medical doctors, psychologists, occupational therapists, counsellors, etc) belonged to different organizations, which led to, from rehabilitation points, disturbing chains of referrals (from specialist to specialist);
- methods of work varied greatly;

- operational efficiency was low in relation to the ambition that rehabilitation must serve job placement;
- average rehabilitation periods were unreasonably long;
- rehabilitation was made in an institutionalized way and was not sufficiently work oriented.

These conclusions were drawn from statistics; follow-ups and staff experiences. Based on findings made, a new organization for vocational rehabilitation was formed in 1980 with the principal aims to:

- correlate specialist resources in organizational units (Ami);
- achieve unified objectives and work methods;
- let occupational rehabilitation primarily take place in real work situations.

I will show you the organization chart on overhead, which will give you an idea of our strength as regards the composition of various competencies. It might be useful to keep this in mind as I go along. Those of you who are interested to know more about the institute, will find some more details in the yellow handouts by your seats. On a desk here you will also find the annual report of the National Labour Market Board, including presentations of additional measures and activities.

After having worked our way through a lot of problems that are naturally involved by a major re-organization, as was the case with us, we felt that we had not yet solved some of the more crucial matters. We were still lacking the proper work methods and programs as far as behavioural changes are concerned. Our staff insisted now and then that they got the "wrong" clients. What actually happened was that clients in need of behavioural and attitude changes kept on being referred to the institutes and there were no adequate measures to solve these kinds of problems. This was the situation when I was introduced to CEIC's Life Skills Training in 1981.

Who, then, are our clients at the institutes? The formal and rather unspecific regulations say that they are the job applicants who are not job ready - either because of difficulties to make a vocational choice or because of a limited work capacity for some reason or another. From the description of the Saskatchewan NewStart clients you can very well recognize our clients. In addition to lack of skills, many of our clients also have a more or less severe physical deficiency or are otherwise handicapped. But often, I dare say, the most restricting handicap that we meet is to be found on the psychological level: the attitude towards oneself and others, the lack of self confidence, the lack of skills needed to get and keep a job etc. Without these problems I am convinced that the measures available at the Employment Office would have been sufficient for getting these clients a job.

It is in these latter respects the concept of skill training became very important to us. We felt that we did have adequate methods for vocational guidance and employment counselling, medical diagnoses, social assessment, psychotherapy and so on. But if the client's problems were expressed in terms of "I can not do..." or "I am not capable of..." we tended to take the role of the fixer, thus depriving our clients from a possible personal growth.

The concept of skill training was not new to us - it was included in the original guidelines of the new organization - that did not help our clients very much. We lacked structure and the proper pedagogical and educational approach for doing it. By CEIC's Life Skills Training Program we were suddenly given a basis for handling these problems in a professional way. I am not saying that we have not done any skill training before - that would be unfair to my colleagues. It would be more correct to say that the training has not always been done professionally in the systematic way and by the pedagogical approach that is emphasized in CEIC's concept of Life Skills Training.

Thus, about a year ago, I left my job temporarily - I am director of one of the Employability Assessment Institutes - for running a project on Life Skills Training based on the experiences presented by CEIC. The project consists of four parts:

1. developing programs for Life Skills Training that would fit into our general work model;
2. working out a course design for training Life Skills Coaches;
3. setting up a course for counsellor trainers with the emphasis on skill training;
4. introducing the concept of Life Skills Training to authorities and instances outside the Labour Market Administration, e.g. to Retraining Centers, to be used as a preparation for, or follow up of job entry.

In particular part one aims at:

- introducing systematic Life Skills Training as a component of employment counselling, especially within the Employability Asessment Institutes;
- finding out where Life Skills Training best fits in within the frames of our organization and among the various activities;
- learning what content needs to be concentrated on in accordance with our responsibility;
- learning what staff categories could be the future coaches;
- enlarging the tasks and improving the professional skills of some of our staff categories;
- suggesting alternative ways of implanting skill training in the organizations;

- getting an idea how to use Life Skills Training in a flexible way, so as not to exchange one static system for another;
- outlining further developmental work with focus on variations of programs and more complex skills.

Part two of the project aimed at:

- producing guidelines for coach training
- training of coaches, i.e. running a test-course.

Part three of the project focuses on:

- producing a manual for staff training that is based on the same structure and pedagogical approach as Life Skills Training
- suggesting a design for integrating skill training with existing training programs for counsellors and making it part of our future basic program for staff training, which is to be introduced in 1985.

Part four of the project aims at, as mentioned, introducing the concept of Life Skills Training to authorities and instances outside of the Labour Market Administration to be used as a preparation for or follow up of job entry.

I will now concentrate on part one of the project. So this is how we proceeded: As Life Skills to most of our staff hardly was more than a theoretical concept, we had to prepare the ground for its practical application. This was done by "marketing" the idea at regional conferences for persons in charge of the county organization, including those responsible for development and staff training at the regional level, and for the institute managers. In this way we reached the county administration and every institute in the country within a minimum of time.

The whole marketing procedure - from acceptance of the idea to the competence of doing Life Skills Training can be compared to a stone making rings on the water. I am glad that Stuart Conger threw this stone into Swedish water.

We are now on our way towards the goal, even though there is still much work to be done. It has been very exciting for all of us involved and there is a very positive attitude towards further efforts. The climate for introducing new ideas is good in the sense that people really experience a strong need for a new approach and new methods. Though the idea of Life Skills Training was welcomed, the next step forward, the following presentation including more clarifications, met the same mixture of reactions almost everywhere:
CONFUSION - what is this, do we have to make things so complicated...over to...
RESISTANCE OR DENIAL - what is new about this?, this is something we have always been doing...and finally to...
ACCEPTANCE - this is exactly what we need, when can we start?

An additional problem has been to translate Life Skills into Swedish and now I am not just referring to the concept itself - which has been hard enough. It is simply not possible or even desirable for everything just to be translated or copied for our purposes. One way out of this has been learning by doing and thus making it alive and also making it our own. It is working...

A prerequisite for our project has been the support from some institutes, where the staff have been willing to engage in Life Skills Training. We came to an agreement with 6 institutes, based on their own expressed wishes to participate - and only very strong commitment counted. This was a result of an invitation given at the regional conference already mentioned.

From each institute at least two persons committed themselves to be trained as coaches and to apply skill training thereafter within the framework of our project. No extra resources were provided to do this, the participation in the project was in no way to reduce the quantity of client service. The planning and implementation were done separately for each institute in accordance with local conditions as ongoing developmental work and activities already agreed upon had to be considered. Thus the coaches have all been working under different conditions. Our intention was to introduce Life Skills Training gradually, let it grow on and along with the assets of the organization, not constructing a situation where "this would only be the new and only way of working - leaving everything else aside."

Each institute was to appoint its own future coaches according to interests, closeness to skill training in their job position and pedagogical competence. As a result we now have among our coaches some psychologists, some rehabilitation counsellors, a social worker and an occupational therapist.

Our intention was to introduce Life Skills at each participating institute and to get also the rest of the staff emotionally involved in the project. Thus, after their training period the coaches had a meeting with the staff back home, implanting the idea by giving a PR-lesson on Life Skills Training and also explaining more precisely what they were going to do and how this would effect other activities.

We wanted the coaches to work in pairs. However it turned out that only some of them did; others worked on their own and others again engaged and trained their colleagues of their work team to participate in creating and running their own lessons. Besides the support from their colleagues, we experienced that the coaches were backed up by their managers and also by the regional unit for developmental work and staff training.

Skill training has been carried out in different phases of the process towards job readiness, mostly concentrated, though, to the initial part of a client's period at the

institute, where most activities are group oriented. Here it has been used to build a working group, improve communication, etc, thus often replacing other activities with a similar content and purpose but with a different approach. It has also been used for the purpose of activating clients in respects where previously they were "bulldozed" by the fixing role of the staff, e.g. in procuring information, places for work assessment etc. We now do the training - not compensates the lack of skills.

At an early stage we thought of designing a few lessons covering a content that would meet the needs of the average client and having these tested in different settings and combinations. We decided, however, to let the coaches create their own lessons. Once they met a specific problem that could be handled by a skill training lesson, they were asked to do their own construction work. Moreover we decided to concentrate more on directly work related skills, which means that so far we have restricted our experiment to this skill area. We started by looking at the concept of job readiness and its meaning in terms of skill. We broke down the broad perspective trying to find out from here, where the problem could be located and where to start building a program.

Due to the previous mentioned "marketing" which resulted in a personal involvement in the project also of the rest of the staff, training lessons were designed in cooperation between the coaches and their colleagues: thus utilizing the experience of many persons.

There has been continuous communication between all of us involved during the try out period. Once a lesson was completed and evaluated it was spread to the whole group of coaches to keep everybody informed about what was going on and thus giving opportunity for cooperation.

The follow-up and summarizing has just begun and the project - at least in this outlook - will be ended in June 84, when the manual and final report is to be presented. Unfortunately this situation - being in the middle of the action - also means that there is still some more information to reveal, more experiences to bring forth and conclusions to draw, which I cannot share with you right now.

This is already a balance between description of activities and report of conclusions, but before turning to the latter I will comment on our staff training, i.e. parts two and three.

With the invaluable assistance of Vance Peavy, we designed and ran - on two separate occasions - a four days' training course with the aim of giving an introduction to skill training emphasizing pedagocial content and structured learning as a first step in training: knowing what it is and getting an opportunity to practise as a group leader. Taking the role of the trainer meant constructing the lesson as well as presenting it to a group.

Besides his own excellent teaching and supervision, Vance had for this purpose also written as special handbook for training counsellors. This book has been very much appreciated and is going to be used in our future basic training program.

The particpants in these two pilot courses were all very experienced, especially in group counselling. We invited the future coaches, who were involved in our investigation, counsellor trainers and people responsible for staff training. The number of participants has to be limited and the competition was intense. I guess this was a result of the good reputation which Vance has acquired from previous training activities for the Board. Many people were now disappointed at not being accepted, and there is still a demand for additional courses with a similar outline.

The coaches were given additional training - lasting for a week. In the meantime they had been doing some practice at the institutes. The second part concentrated on discussions and exercises forming the new role by training its practical implications. The whole situation was new to all of us and the aim - becoming good coaches - was reached only because of very good work done by everyone participating. The coaches have also had access to everything that CEIC has published on Life Skills. The videotapes "client counsellor relationships, intentional attending and groups that work" are also used in regular staff training and are well known to almost everybody in the Employment Service. These films have given us good examples of skills needed in our professional work and also helped to start a discussion of the importance of adequate skill training in staff training.

Now back to part one of the project, the implementation of Life Skills Training. It is quite obvious even at this early stage of evaluation that Life Skills Training has come to stay in Sweden. I say this though I am aware also that a lot of developmental work remains to be done. Thus far the impact of the project may be summarized as follows:

- we got the kick needed to keep the job alive;
- we enlarged our arsenal of methods;
- we found an appropriate name for and a professional approach to some activities we already had;
- we are on our way to achieve a role change - both for clients and for counsellors. Counsellors are becoming facilitators instead of fixers, clients are encouraged to take self responsibility and do things themselves;
- we got a lesson structure and a pedagogical approach that can be applied on almost any activity that implies problem solving;
- we learned that different staff categories can be involved in the training, either by participation by doing the actual training or by providing opportunities for further training when a lesson is finished: thus our staffs' professional competency has increased.

As I said, very much of the lesson content until now seems familiar to us. Thus, we ended up with a lot of old wine in new bottles. The coaches took the line: find, get and hold a job, and used training according to the Life Skills Model whenever it was possible. One might think that we missed the point by changing methods but not really the content...I guess this choice, to begin with what we have and transfer it, to train clients to do all the things we had done for them before, was a good start. What we have discovered is a different way of handling problems, training clients to become capable, active agents and giving ourselves a new role. We start where the client is, using his/her knowledge, stress the concrete, the observable, we activate the client, making abstract things understandable and concentrate on "here and now". I am sure this sounds quite familiar to you.

These have been the positive aspects. There are, however, some aspects we will have to keep under close observation in future, not having worked out entirely so far. There has been a tendency regarding lesson construction to be a little too specific instead of working towards the generic. The possibility to integrate the skill, make use of it in a flexible way, is thus limited. Maybe this is a result of our outline and the most proper way for the coaches to act when the try-out had to be part of their ordinary work.

Also the problem solving aspect and the way of looking at every lesson as well as a whole program through these glasses have been insufficiently emphasized.

We are, however, slowly learning how to build lessons and programs, and I am convinced that it is worth all this time and effort. Being able to build on your own must be preferred to copying and thereby also taking the risk of working too much on the surface. We are now forced to learn to understand and handle Life Skills Training. This way of changing positions step by step has been a "safe" way of creating a good platform for letting skill training grow.

Another important issue is coach training. We have realized how difficult it is to become a good coach, especially consciously using all the pedagogical principles that we know make things work, e.g. being clear and specific, "level" with the client and give him/her a chance to grow. Therefore we will have to concentrate our efforts on this part if we want Life Skills Training to survive as an effective instrument.

This brings me to future activities regarding Life Skills Training as well as coach and counsellor training. We will be running another pilot course for coaches this spring, built on experiences from previous courses and the pilot study. After that we will specify a course design for coach training which includes centrally administred courses and training within the institutes.

A request has come from our staff working with independent living at institutes with special resources who want to

learn more about this kind of structure learning. So far they have been lacking a professional pedagogical approach and they now want to see through an "introduction" in what way this is a model and method also applicable on their work.

Vance Peavy is coming back to run more training courses - first of all for our trainers for future counsellors in the new basic training program, where skill training will be emphasized.

Before this coming summer there will be a report completed on the experiences of this project, including a manual with recommendations and instructions and an outline for future developmental work in this area. Maybe we will also, once, try to work out a taxonomy where we illustrate by graphic presentations the important skills and our way of handling Life Skills Training.

The discussion of how to organize skill training within the institutes will certainly go on. Probably we will set up special "training stations" where the topics can be chosen by the client beforehand, but the specific content grows on and along with the group. Parallel to this, skill training can of course be added to other activities without having to build up complex programs for everyone. With clients' needs in mind, and the competence of using Life Skills Training professionally the risk of deciding too much over the clients' heads is minimized.

Finally a few words about part four of the project - sharing of experiences - which for natural reasons has received little attention until now. We have been informing others about what we are doing and we know that people are keen to learn more about Life Skills Training. For instance, in vocational training there seems to be a need to set up special Life Skills Programs in addition to the training of technical and vocational skills, the school counsellors responsible for vocational guidance are interested and so on. Even from Denmark and Finland we have received positive reactions. There is a demand for a manual, which has not yet been completed and also a desire for help in setting up staff training programs.

With these comments on future work; I come to the end of my presentation. Thank you for listening.....

RESEARCH SECTION

PREFACE

NEW DIRECTIONS IN COUNSELLING RESEARCH: I

As the title suggests, this issue of NATCON is devoted to research in counselling, especially improving research methods and results. Impetus for this issue comes from several sources.

First, there is a clear need for the production and utilization of better research in counselling. This means the improvement of conventional research methods as well as the introduction of new or alternative research approaches with which to carefully and usefully do counselling research.

Second, The Canadian Counselling and Guidance Association, National Research Committee has adopted as an objective the support and recognition of young researchers in counselling.

Third, counselling is a front line profession for giving direct help on an individual basis to persons who are trying to cope with change, transition, and displacement in our society. Therefore, the need for useful research-based knowledge on both individual coping skills and contexts within which coping takes place is undeniable. Nowhere is the need for good quality counselling and research more pressing than in the areas of career, vocational and employment counselling. Work-life changes and displacements brought on by labor force instabilities and the accelerating use of technology requires the continuous review and updating of vocational counselling strategies.

Fourth, at the 1983 CGCA/SCOC Conference in Fredericton, N.B., a Counselling Research Symposium under the chairmanship of Professor R. V. Peavy brought together a number of Canadian researchers, graduate students in counselling, and other persons interested in doing and consuming counselling research. This symposium with its stimulating exchange of new and old ideas about doing research was a genuine inspiration for this special issue of NATCON on research. Several of the papers in this issue have been drawn directly from the sypmposium discussion. Other papers have been taken from the 1983 Conference and other sources to provide an initial impulse for the improvement of counselling research in Canada. Nine papers have been included in this issue. A brief review follows.

The first paper (Perron, Lecomte, Dumont, Castonguay, and Paré) provides an overview of what kind of research articles were published between 1980 and 1982 by Canadian counsellor educators and gives some pertinent details about the authors. This is followed by a presentation made by Professor West at the Research Symposium in Fredericton. Also from the Symposium is a paper (Knowles) on encouraging young researchers. This should be of special interest to both young researchers and those who are research supervisors.

The next three papers are brief research reports. In each case the research methodology used is of special interest. The first of these three papers (Amundson and Borgen) is a report of research on the experiential impact of unemployed status on the individuals who are unemployed. The focus of the paper is on the model developed by the researchers and the phenomenological/critical incident method of research used to do the research. The second paper (Anderson) is exerpted from Dr. Anderson's doctoral dissertation on "A Formative Assessment of a Thanatology Curriculum at the Tertiary Level of Education." This paper was included for its unusually clear and detailed description of the use of ground theory methods of doing research. This paper suggests a "new direction" in counselling research methodology. The third paper (van Santen) also introduces a "new direction" in counselling research methods--the method of context analysis, or, more generally, a systems-based research methodology. The substantive focus of this paper is a contextual micro-analysis of a counselling group leader/member interaction.

There follows a paper (de Andrade) which gives a certain critique of conventional approaches to doing research in education and counselling and introduces a dialogal model of investigation.

The eighth paper (Peavy, Armstrong, Dudley) is a set of selected references on qualitative or "naturalistic" research methods. The methods for which references are included are: naturalistic (qualitative) paradigm, phenomenology, grounded theory, participant observation, critical incident, and case study/life history method. The final paper (Perron, Dumont) is a brief research report included as an example of how research can provide data useful for the formation of future career education in a multi-cultural society.

As editor of this issue, I wish to express my gratitude to each of the individuals who have contributed papers. It is my belief that this publication will add significantly to the growing effort by Canadian researchers in counselling - both within academia and outside of it - to build a strong knowledge base for counselling in Canada. Finally, I wish to thank Mr. D. Stuart Conger, Director General, Employment Support Services Branch for his generous support which made the publication of this monograph possible.

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CANADIAN RESEARCH IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING: EARLY PAST AND NEAR FUTURE

Jacques Perron, Ph.D., University of Montreal
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Louis-Georges Castonguay, M.Ps., University of Montreal
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The results of this research are based on a sample of articles published between 1980 and 1982 by Canadian counsellor educators.

As shown in the following five Tables, each publication has been classified according to eight categories: 1) Author's gender, 2) Language of article, 3) Province, 4) Publication network, 5) Orientation, 6) Target population, 7) Perspective, and 8) Themes and subthemes.

A thorough description and referenced justification of the grid will be published in the January issue of the Canadian Counsellor.

Note: the eighty (80) publications that were analyzed are only a sample of the documents we have received and were used primarily to test the validity of the grid. A more comprehensive analysis is underway, the results of which will be published during the year 1984.

Table 1

General Informations

Variable	N	%
Author's gender		
Male	52	65.0
Female	9	11.2
Mixt	19	23.8
Language of article		
English	66	82.5
French	14	17.5
Province		
Newfoundland	1	1.2
Nova Scotia	0	0.0
P.E.I	0	0.0
New Brunswick	0	0.0
Quebec	25	31.3
Ontario	9	11.2
Manitoba	3	3.7
Saskatchewan	0	0.0
Alberta	11	13.7
B.C.	31	38.7
Publication network		
National	24	30.0
International	56	70.0

Table 2

Orientation

Variable	N	%
Theoretical	25	31
Practical	10	20
Empirical	39	49

Table 3
Target

Variable	N	%
Children	4	5
Adolescents	0	0
Adults	1	1.2
Aged	1	1.2
Individual	19	23.8
Couple	2	2.5
Family	0	0
Group	1	1.2
Institution	0	0
Community	0	0
Counsellors, Psychologists	23	28.8
Other professions	4	5
Students	19	23.8
General population	4	5
Animals	0	0

Table 4

Perspective

Variable	N	%
Intervention	16	20
Preventive	4	5 (25)
Developmental	7	8.8 (44)
Remedial	5	6.3 (31)
Investigation	64	80
Exploration	53	66.2 (82.8)
Validation	10	12.5 (15.6)
Generalization	1	1.2 (1.6)

Table 5

Content by themes and sub-themes

Variables	N	%
Conceptual development	7	8.8
psychological theories	2	2.5 (28.6)
career and guidance theories	2	2.5 (28.6)
themes and concepts	3	3.7 (42.8)
Development of Intervention Methods	16	20
psychological techniques	11	13.7 (68.6)
career and guidance techniques	2	2.5 (12.5)
teaching techniques	3	3.7 (18.9)
Empirical development	5	6.3
state of research	4	5 (80)
methodological questions	1	1.2 (20)
Professional development	8	10
ethical and legal duties	1	1.2 (12.5)
role and competence	4	5 (50)
role and social status	3	3.7 (37.5)
Outcome studies	10	12.5
single evaluation	6	7.5 (60)
comparative evaluation	4	5 (40)
Process studies	19	23.8
cognitive, emotional, behavioral implication	10	12.5 (52.6)
Interaction	3	3.7 (31.6)
and interventions	6	7.5 (15.8)
Supervision and training	7	8.8
psychologists	5	6.3 (71.4)
teachers	1	1.2 (14.3)
counsellors	1	1.2 (14.3)
Client characteristics	6	7.5
social and economical conditions	1	1.2 (16.7)
values	5	6.3 (83.3)
personnality	0	0 (0)
Therapist characteristics	2	2.5
social and economical conditions	0	0 (0)
values	2	2.5 (100)
personnality	0	0 (0)

IMPROVING RESEARCH IN COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY: A POINT OF VIEW

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Over the years I have come to recognize that whenever I open my mouth, I tend to say more about myself than I do about my topic. Even when my topic is research in counselling, and especially when I must address myself to the "improvement" of research in counselling, what I have to say is rather subjective.

To improve research means to increase its value or excellence and that is surely a matter of human judgement. What I consider to be improvement others may consider to be deterioration. It follows that as I declare my position on the topic, I will make myself vulnerable to criticism and perhaps even to ridicule. Nevertheless, in the company of our Canadian luminaries on counselling research (Lecomte, Peavy, et al), I also might elicit some corrective or growthful feedback. So, like all good counselling types, I am quite prepared to take the risks of disclosure in anticipation of the benefits which may accrue.

Following is an adumbration of 13 proposals for the improvement of research in counselling. I do not claim that they are original nor that they exhaust all possibilities for innovative change. Certainly no order of importance or priority is intended by their arrangement herein. I present these ideas only as a basis for discussion and debate, and I invite you to consider them both carefully and critically. Hopefully, we can reach consensus on some points, and then collectively get on with the task of designing better counselling research.

First. I am convinced that the "standard view" of science is largely myth. We need only to consult a modern elementary text on the history, logic, and philosophy of science for an expose of that myth (see, for example, Gale, 1979). Many of the prescriptions and proscriptions which we have dutifully studied in courses on statistics and research design are both arcane and inappropriate to our field. As Tolman (1980) has observed, neopositivism has "played itself out" in the behavioral sciences.

Consider just one example -- the numerous times that we have been told that controlled experiments were the epitome of rigorous research. Only with controlled experiments, it was assumed, can we pin down causal factors by eliminating alternative causal explanations. Unfortunately, that is the logic of pre-systemic, pre-ecological thinking which is appropriate only to a world of linear (S-R) causality. In counselling, we must deal with multiple and transactional causality. We know, for example, that parenting practices influence a child's behavior, but we also know that a child's behavior will influence parenting practices. In the

simplest act of communication, A influences B, but B also influences A. Controlled experiments cannot prove which came first -- the chicken or the egg. In our field, the quest for causal explanations through controlled experimentation has turned out to be an epistemological snare.

Moreover, the models of science which we have so desperately tried to follow are not, as we have been led to believe, faithful representations of the way that science gets done by real scientists (Mahoney, 1976; Mitroff & Kilmann, 1978; Lakatos, 1970; Popper, 1972; and Suppe, 1974). Traditional models of science are an encumbrance to counselling research. If we want to make real progress, we must first learn to take the trappings of traditional science far less seriously. As Cronbach and Suppes (1969) have suggested "perhaps science is a modern shibboleth, and our efforts would be liberated by substituting the term disciplined inquiry for science."

Second. I believe that any creative and disciplined research for knowledge can be viewed as scholarly research. Note carefully those two adjectives -- creative and disciplined (see Gelso, 1979). The term "creative" suggests that our scholarly efforts should be original, inventive, heuristic, or generative. In order to achieve this goal, we must be willing to peruse, analytically and critically, the existing literature in the field in order to "tease out" the most powerful ideas and relationships for creative re-synthesis. We must also be willing to "scout" other disciplines in search of new insights, models, tools, and applications which would enhance our own field. Few things could be more pedestrian and less creative in counselling research than another study on empathy.

The adjective "disciplined" suggests that scholarly research must take into account the fact that people tend to perceive the world in terms of their currently held theories, expectations, and motivations. As scholars, we must discipline our search for knowledge by building in checks and balances to keep us honest. In a popular article, written for Psychology Today, Hogan and Schroeder (1981) outline seven pervasive biases in American psychology. It is scandalous that these biases have become almost paradigmatic in our field. If we would exercise the required discipline in our quest for knowledge, that should not happen! The hallmark of a disciplined researcher is a commitment to knowledge that exceeds all other commitments -- religious, feminist, political, professional, etc. The motto of the disciplined researcher, like that of the University of Alberta, is "quaecumque vera".

Third. Despite a profound commitment to knowledge, we must realize that objectivity is an idealization, not a reality. Contrary to the assumptions of the romantics in our field, we cannot trust ourselves to be "basically good" or "pure in heart" in our representations of reality. Characteristically, we are not exquisitely rational nor free from ideological bias. Rather, we are stakeholders in the

research game, and thus we are motivated both consciously and unconsciously to protect our stakes (i.e., our ego investments and our self-serving interests).

After George Gale (1979), I believe that objectivity is the responsibility of the scientific community at large and not the sole responsibility of individual researchers. So don't expect me and others to be objective in the absence of your "friendly" confrontations.

Some feminists claim that male dominated research is repleat with masculine bias. It very likely is! Hence, the growing body of research conducted by feminists will constitute a useful and corrective counterpoise. But don't expect it to be objective and don't "politely" let it go unquestioned and unchallenged.

Ultimately, objectivity is the product of dialogue among disparate stakeholders. If research is to remain a self-critical and self-correcting process, we must courageously present our theories, our methods, our data, and our inferences to public scrutiny. This trial-by-fire administered by a jury of peers is a central feature of modern science, and we must accept as "scientific" only that which survives the ordeal. Nothing less goes!

Fourth. There is no single algorithm or best method for conducting research (Lecomte, Dumont, & Zingle, 1981). Every approach to research has its strengths and weaknesses, a fact which is nicely illustrated by Gelso's (1969) bubble analogy. Conducting research is like putting a sticker on a car windshield. Invariably, a bubble appears and when we try to make it disappear, it simply reappears somewhere else. Whenever we select one research approach over and against another, we are making a trade-off, and thus no research is beyond criticism and no truly creative and disciplined inquiry is without merit.

The systems principles of equipotentiality and equifinality also add to our conceptual understanding of the topic. The principle of equipotentiality suggests that any good approach may have a number of useful applications. If, for example, qualitative methods are useful in anthropology, perhaps they also may be useful in counselling research. The principle of equifinality suggests that it is possible to start at different beginning points, travel different routes, employ different methods, and still arrive at the same "truth".

Meta-analyses of sets of research studies on a given topic support the foregoing comments. By and large, such studies find virtually no evidence of a relationship between the design features of the study and the outcome or findings (see, for example, Burns & Bozeman, 1981). I believe that we could improve both the quality and quantity of our research in counselling by encouraging and supporting the full range of creative and disciplined inquiry. We are most likely to zero in on new knowledge through a process of triangulation which produces a convergence of findings from very different modes of inquiry. In scholarly research, the

medium is not the message and formalism is not of the essence.

Fifth. If we really want to improve research in counselling, we must first state our problems clearly and then tailor our research meothods to address those problems. I happen to agree with Lecomte et al (1981) when they suggest that both research and theory in counselling should be shaped by the salient needs of society. It is the business of statisticians and research design technicians to produce research methods in search of a problem, but it is our task to clearly specify the important problems in counselling and then to seek the most appropriate method for their solution. As Lecomte et al (1981) suggest, "what needs to be justified is the fit between a particular problem and the research procedure chosen to address it" (p. 15). Moreover, of equally appropriate methods, that method which is the simplest is also the most elegant. The published reports of our research endeavours also should manifest elegant simplicity. I urge the editor of the Canadian Counsellor, Jacques Perron, to refuse to publish manuscripts until they have been trimmed of their ostentatious verbosity and obfuscating complexity. Insist that they be clear and cogent!

Sixth. Since counselling psychology is an applied field, by and large we should engage ourselves in applied research, leaving pure research to the purists. Our scarce time and resources should be devoted to studies which have conceivable potential to make some difference to our profession.

In counselling research, when it comes to a trade-off between rigor and relevance, we must always be willing to sacrifice rigor (read pedantry). I recommend that we follow the criterion of relevance suggested some years ago by Krumboltz and Mitchell (1969). We should ask ourselves: Will this research make a difference to counselling practice? Will it lead to more effective counselling and therefore to more effective living? If not, is it worth doing? And, if it is not even worth doing, is it worth doing rigorously (i.e., with slavish attention to rules, details, and formality)?

Seventh. Counsellors, of all people, should recognize that every person is unique and that each person reacts somewhat differently from others to similar situations. Hence, we must be very careful when using "group designs" and when interpreting the results of nomothetic studies.

Consider the following example. Mrs. Smith conducted a survey of 100 students at East Side High School to determine their need for sex education. Using a five-point Likert type scale, she asked the students to respond to the question: Of what value would a program in sex education be to you? The following results were obtained:

X	Scale	f	fX
1.	no value	50	50
2.	little value	20	40
3.	moderate value	15	45
4.	great value	10	40
5.	extreme value	5	25
		$\Sigma fx = 200$	

$\bar{x} = 2$

Should Mrs. Smith conclude, on the basis of a group mean of two, that sex education would be of "little value" to the students of East Side? Or, should she recognize that "of little value" was the response of only one-fifth of the students; one-half perceive "no value" and about one-third perceive "moderate to extreme value". In this survey, clearly the distribution of responses rather than the group mean is most instructive.

Not only do group averages often fail to describe real people, but they sometimes also conceal very important differences among them. Remember Mark Twain's fictional character who stood with one foot on a hot stove and another on a block of ice. On average, he should have been quite comfortable.

The importance of taking an ideographic as opposed to a nomothetic perspective in our research is highlighted by the following excerpt from the seminal work of Lecomte et al (1981):

> ...counsellors cannot be regarded as relatively homogenous units that deliver a standard treatment, uniform in both quantity and quality. Still less uniform are clients, who even if they bear similar problem labels, are differentially receptive to various forms of treatment... the question of what the counselling psychologist does has to be sharpened in its specificity: "What specific counselling interventions produce specific changes in specific clients under specific conditons?" (p. 12)

Eighth. We must overcome our infatuation with large samples. An intensive experimental design with an N=1 or a case study sometimes yields a wealth of useful knowledge. George Gallop uses a sample of about 1200 to survey the educational opinions of the entire American population. That's about one person polled in every 200,000 U.S. citizens. For 200,000 times the cost, Gallop could take a census instead of a sample, but if he were to do so he would not significantly improve the accuracy of his results. Research, I believe, like everything else which the counsellor does, should be governed by cost-effectiveness considerations.

The appropriateness of sample size is determined by many factors, including the heterogeneity of the population sampled. For most situations in counselling, however, I have found the following "quick and dirty" procedure to be quite adequate. Select a representative, if not random, sample of 20. Analyze the results. Augment this sample by another 10. Reanalyze the results. Does the picture change substantially? If not, your new sample of 30 is probably large enough. If you are getting a lot of new information, perhaps you should continue to augment your sample until your data "settles down". There is no point in continuing to gather data, however, when it fails to yield any new or useful information.

Ninth. The appropriate place to conduct research in counselling psychology is in a naturalistic field setting. Systemic, holistic, and ecological perspectives all emphasize the importance of studying human behavior in its natural context. Behaviors of interest to counsellors always occur within some context and generally are meaningless when abstracted from that context.

What Hawkins (1979) has called the "agricultural botany" approach to research with its random assignment of subjects to experimental and control groups, its rigorously applied treatments, and its extensive statistical analysis, was designed to maximize internal validity -- i.e., the validity which presumably allows the researcher to conclude that the observed outcomes were due to the experimental treatment. In counselling research, external validity is by far the more important consideration. External validity is achieved by selecting subjects, treatments, and environments that are typical or representative of the subjects, treatments, and environments to which the results should apply.

The principles which describe human behavior in contrived and controlled laboratory simulations, using volunteer subjects who have signed research consent forms, do not validly generalize to real life settings. Thus the important and practical research in counselling most likely will be conducted in field settings and will employ correspondingly appropriate research methods. Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Smith (1981) provide rather convincing arguments in support of such naturalistic research.

Tenth. Systemic and ecological perspectives also suggest that the counselling intervention may not be a useful unit of study. A focus on counselling interventions implies that, while the counsellor is proactive and causes things to happen, the client merely reacts. Surely, we have outgrown this simplistic linear model of causality! If we allow that the client also is proactive and capable of causing things to happen both in and outside of counselling, then our unit of focus must become not the intervention but the transaction or interaction.

In this regard, it is interesting to note that Bergin and Lambert (1979) have come to reject the whole idea of "independent variables". That concept, they suggest, leads

us to make assumptions about human behavior that are inconsistent with the phenomena which we observe. Independent variables, as opposed to systems-type, cyclical, or feedback processes, probably do not exist in counselling psychology.

Eleventh. Much counselling research in the past has focused on atomistic events and on micro-issues. Perhaps the time has come to take a bigger view. Instead of counting nonverbal behaviors or rating core conditions, we may find it more productive to focus upon the motives, strategies, and style of the interacting parties. For example, does the counsellor attempt to identify and challenge the client's maladaptive cognitions and self-defeating values? If so, how is this done? How does the client respond? And finally, what effect does this have on the counsellor's future behavior?

Few counsellors make use of the research that is produced today, and there is little evidence to suggest that they would be more proficient if they did. Small, independent, and unrelated studies which focus on atomistic events and which are conducted to satisfy the requirements for graduate degrees or academic promotions do not advance the field of counselling in any remarkable way. I happen to agree with Leo Goldman (1979), when he suggests that some "journals might even make a fine contribution to the field by silently folding their tents" and again when he suggests that "years of trivia accumulate to a mass of trivia and little else (p. 42)".

Perhaps we should start to think in terms of large scale programatic research in which teams of researchers and practitioners collaborate to tackle the truly important issues in our profession. Perhaps we should establish research institutes analogous to cancer research centers which would tackle a singular, specific, and salient issue in counselling, like the use of computers in counselling, the development of learning skills and study habits, the development of self-discipline and self-respect, the development and maintenance of a positive work climate, or the prevention of "burn out" or "substance abuse".

Twelfth. I would be happy to see our profession experiment with some bold new modes of inquiry. Specifically, I think the adversary model could prove to be a productive approach to fact finding and decision making. Using the legal metaphor, we could put our counselling practice and our theories "on trial" (Wolf, 1975).

The legal profession and the adversary model have a very old and well established tradition for collecting evidence, assessing its merits, and making decisions on the basis of the best evidence available. In our culture, the legal model is accepted as a reasonable, fair, and just method for determining truth and arriving at judgments. Although the legal approach is somewhat expensive and, like all other modes of inquiry, has its fair share of limitations (Popham and Carlson, 1974), its potential utility in the study of counselling merits our thoughtful consideration.

Thirteenth. We must not expect too much from counselling research. We seem to be entrapped by a technological fallacy, assuming that anything is possible if only we discover the proper technology. But, people are not machines, and in the realm of human affairs not everything is "fixable". We also seem to subscribe to the Mount Everest Principle, believing that if something can be done it must be done. But, some human concerns are intractable and some are so ecologically embedded that to resolve them would only create other larger problems elsewhere within the system.

We must not forget that counselling is largely an art, and thus the ingredients of effective counselling may never be completely specified. Effective counsellors know much more than they can articulate and much more than we can measure or verify through research. Historically, research in counselling has always followed practice -- sometimes confirming and supporting, and sometimes rejecting practice, but almost never leading the way. I see little reason to believe that things will be different in the future and therefore I suggest that we make greater use of evaluation models rather than experimental models to promote the development of our profession. Evaluation models require no a priori hypotheses about the outcomes of our inquiry. Hence, they are powerful modes of exploration and they enable us to identify negative side-effects and unanticipated spin-offs as well as intended outcomes. Evaluation studies which are creative and disciplined do indeed qualify as scholarly research; may their numbers increase!

ENCOURAGING YOUNG RESEARCHERS TO ENGAGE IN COUNSELLING RESEARCH

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The ambivalence towards the doing of research was demonstrated by the reaction of a doctoral student who had just joined our program. The Dean was hosting an evening gathering for graduate students and faculty members who were engaging in the intriguing "opening moves" of meeting, for the first time, people with whom they were to spend two or three years. A group which included an instructor of statistics and research design was joined by a young woman who described her enthusiasm for graduate studies and for the area of her intended research. When the statistics instructor identified his teaching area she turned to him and asked, "What's it like to teach a course that everybody hates?" Those of us who watched the exchange were frankly startled by her strength of feeling. The instructor was left stumbling over a reply as embarrassed laughter came forth from the group. Rather unintentionally, a basic contradiction for the young student had emerged: she had chosen to embark upon an intensive program towards a research degree yet had less than wholesome feelings towards what she realized was a basic component of that program.

I have come to realize that this basic dilemma exists for many students who enter graduate programs in counselling. Furthermore, the comments of experienced graduates of such programs, as represented by articles in our professional journals and by symposia dealing with research issues, support the view that many practising counsellors and counsellor educators retain or develop an uneasiness towards what they view as current research activity. Recent statements have contained refreshingly frank admission of concern about the inadequacy of the presently available research base. For example, Polkinghorne (1982) has provided a description of what makes research humanistic, the entire issue of Personnel and Guidance Journal edited by Minor (1981) was devoted to "bridging the gap between research and practice," and Stockton and Hulse (1983) advocated that research be conducted by teams of colleagues. This inadequacy is attributed in large part to the rather restrictive approaches which have characterized our inquiry into the problems rated by counsellors as being important. A theme I wish to develop in this article is that this restrictive approach to the doing of research is based, in part, on the ideas about research which are carried into training programs by young would-be researchers, to be perpetuated by many of our practices in training researchers which in turn lead to a mystification and glorification of a particular type of research - empirically-based data gathering related to a quasi-experimental model. Rather than opening up alternatives to

inquiry, this process is typically a narrowing one, often characterized by short-term over-reliance on experts or models and eventual avoidance of research activity.

Some concerns about present research in counselling

A basic concern about research among counsellors is that most of it has little relationship to the questions they meet in their work as counsellors. One hears adjectives such as atomistic, mechanical, trite, and irrelevant assigned to research activity in general. Sprinthall (1981) has commented that we have acknowledged that two types of research exist - basic and applied - yet continue to apply standards taken from basic research. As a result we have supported a situation where "it is far safer in everyone's mind to opt for emulating the physical science 'true' experimental method" (Sprinthall, 1981, p. 487). Our applications of this "true" experimental model to the counselling area have been characterized by a reductionistic statement of problems, by largely unsuccessful attempts to control situations to reduce "threats to validity", and by cavalier use of inferential statistics generated by computer "packages" which are increasingly under the control of the experimenter.

Parenthetically, I have become increasingly convinced that a major source of problems lies in our lack of understanding of how research methods are applied in the physical and natural sciences which has led us to the awkward situation of attempting to emulate (then criticize) an approach few of us have directly experienced. Recently I have watched a marine biologist at work and have come to appreciate his insistence on maintaining as direct contact as possible with the organisms and phenomena he is studying. He visits the "wild" (as compared to the "tame") situation, uses such direct observational approaches as microscopy, and practises care and respect for the subject matter he encounters as a scientist.

I have also become convinced that the maintenance of an insistence on experimental approaches with undue reliance on quantitative data and analysis thereof rests on essentially political concerns. The adjudicator of research contributions which takes place for journal publication, funding studies, and conference presentation is considered to go better if experimental designs are followed and sophisticated statistical analysis reported. My suspicion is that such a state does not, in fact, exist but we act as if it does. (My own experience has been that, despite warnings to the contrary, my articles containing nonparametric analyses have been published in the Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science and descriptive accounts with no statistical analyses published in the Journal of Counselling Psychology). As a result we impose such standards on the work of colleagues at times of personnel decisions and on our students. A particularly worrisome combination for me is the imposition

of such requirements by evaluators who are currently doing little or no research themselves.

Criticism of this view of current research is easy. The decision not to involve oneself in research is even easier. I would argue, however, that such nonparticipation is probably not possible to maintain in the long run; eventually, working counsellors risk becoming "noninformed consumers" about the sources of techniques, concepts, and information they use in their work. A much more constructive response is to become better informed about current research approaches and to work towards enlarging the number of alternatives we have in conceiving and carrying out research so that the activity becomes increasingly relevant to the work we do as counsellors.

Reasons for learning how to do research

Research is our label for systematic inquiry which is directed towards understanding, predicting, or controlling behavior with some expectation that the results can be generalized to other settings or to other people. The object of research might be to confirm ideas about behavior or to discover new approaches, facts, or problems. Systematic efforts to accomplish either of these functions have contributed much to current counselling practices. Many of the most visible activities of counsellors have resulted from research on such topics as interviewing skills, "essential conditions" for helping, verbal mediation, stages of grieving, group dynamics, and information processing. The most attractive research contributions are probably of the discovery type but confirmatory research has also been important. For example, a recent review by Levant (1983) of attempts to teach parents client-centered helping skills contains some important information about the degree to which we can rely on various parenting program and the extent to which such programs have been influential on parents and children. Confining one's own research activity to discovery-type studies seems unduly limiting and stringent; requiring graduate students, or supporting their expectation, to engage only in discovery-type studies seems unrealistic.

An intriguing question is what would happen if most counsellors did not possess research skills? An obvious, initial answer is that counsellors would be fated to be nondiscerning consumers of other people's research. A more substantive response is that the lack of such skills would remove the benefits, from all stages of research (see below), of participation in research production of a group who have a unique orientation and sense of value to contribute towards a body of research which has veracity and respect for the complexity and uniqueness of individuals.

A possible response is to become an informed consumer of research. Such an accomplishment is not easily achieved. I have watched readers who are unfamiliar with

research approaches read the introductory section of a research article then "hum through" the methods and results section, coming to rely on the author's discussion of results to inform them about the middle section. A real problem with this type of reading is that the basic purpose of becoming directly informed about the basis on which the conclusions have been made is not attained. Several years ago, Glass (1968) documented the existence of several "Piltdown men" -- unexamined pieces of important evidence -- throughout the literature of education and the helping professions. He described the gullibility we show in our noncritical acceptance of ideas about what people are like and what interventions are effective. His writing is very forceful:

> I wish to maintain further that this ignorance and gullibility stem from two causes: (1) an insensitivity -- which is a venial sin in the layman, but a mortal one in the professional -- to the nature of empirical evidence; and (2) a commitment by professionals to "help" the child rather than understand him or his circumstances, a commitment which engenders an uncritical wish to believe that the latest educational nostrum is miraculously effective (Glass, 1968, p. 148).

The article is an important reminder of the need to evaluate critically the sources of data, even from "esteemed" sources or personal experiences, which have given form to our practices and understandings. Glass has described some clues, such as "skimpy yet intemperate reports" and miraculous findings, but the basic need is for general skill in evaluating research.

Several approaches exist to develop such skills so that a practitioner can develop or maintain status as an informed consumer of research. Professional development sessions which provide access to researchers can be effective forums if procedures and implications are discussed. Periodicals such as the Personnel and Guidance Journal and The Counselling Psychologist publish reviews of recent research which convey some of the important details of how studies are conceptualized. Such reviews do, however, place the reader one step away from the primary source which may produce an over-selectivity on the information made available to the reader. For example, a section of Levant's (1983) scholarly and informative review of of parent-training programs is drawn to a conclusion by his selecting three studies (from 23 considered) which meet what he considers to be "minimal criteria of methodological adequacy" (p. 41). However, only by reading these three studies themselves can a reader become aware that the conclusions reported about the effectiveness of teaching parents communications skills are not based on any direct information about parents actually communicating with others but are inferred from written responses or from attitudinal

measures. While the distinction may not be crucial to the author of the review, it could be very important for a parent educator.

Another source of research-consumer skills is textbooks. Many research texts seem to focus on the carrying out of studies but a couple concentrate on understanding the research that other people have done. One of my favorite research texts is Good's (1972) review of the varieties of ways in which research has been carried out. He provides a description of how to retrieve and integrate the literature on a particular topic. His description of the types of research approaches is wider than any other text I have seen: chapters are devoted to case studies, to historical analyses, and to developmental studies. Leedy (1981) has written a book which deals exclusively with the needs of those who wish to be informed about published research. He maintains that "to read and to understand research is, therefore, one of the basic competencies which every man and woman in the modern world should possess" (p. 1) and moves the reader through a skill-development program "so that we may judge with fairness the quality of the research we are asked to accept" (p. 1).

Such consumer skills are important to attain; it is probably obvious that they do not come easily. The parts of the research process which are typically made available to readers of articles or listeners of presentations often feature new measuring devices or types of analyses so that one is almost constantly reminded of the need to stretch further. Perhaps for this reason, the approach utilized in most graduate programs concerned with training counsellors has been to develop skills in both using and conducting research. One assumption seems to have been that by learning to carry out research studies, the graduate student will become informed about the characteristics of sound research and will embark on a life-long involvement in research. Personal experience of watching our graduates leads me to wonder about the soundness of this assumption.

Counsellors as active participants in the research process

Several characteristics of current practice in engaging young counsellors in research seem unfortunate. The graduate school experience is probably overly supervised, in the sense of having many people make judgments about the adequacy of the research, and seems to remove research from a more general problem-solving format. Fairly standard methods and statistical analyses are often applied with little impression of excitement or full understanding of the process. Too often the experience of carrying out research under these conditions seems to be restricting rather than intellectually expanding. One indice of such a reaction is the common observation that a large proportion of thesis and dissertation writers do not carry out any further research. Some university departments have interpreted this state of

affairs to be due to the inexperience of masters-level students and have removed the thesis requirement. A more preferable response would seem to be to reconsider the ways in which research participation has been provided for, to systematically widen the alternatives, and to work towards making the involvement more meaningful. I believe that both masters and doctoral students have much to offer to the counselling research enterprise and can benefit professionally from experiences which develop research skills.

Much of our information about research comes from journal articles which, unfortunately, convey only a small portion of the research process. In many ways, attempting to understand this process by relying primarily on published articles is bound to produce misinformation or, at least, misemphasis. Apart from this very selective nature of what is reported in published articles, the process of converting research activities into article form is also very selective. Only about one-quarter of submitted manuscripts are accepted for publication so most authors attempt to choose carefully what they write about to increase the chances of their articles being considered. Negative results are rarely reported, intriguing but unplanned results or observations are omitted, and the context of experiences and concerns from which studies emanate are not conveyed. One must find a fuller type of involvement in research to gain an appreciation of the process, particularly of the several points at which decisions are made and creative development of alternatives are possible.

The process of conducting a research study is essentially a problem-solving expedition. There is a flow of pursuit, marked by activities which are as varied as intensive analysis and creative synthesis. The "creative problem-solving" paradigm, which has been described by Parnes (1977) and Treffinger (Treffinger & Huber, 1975), seems an appropriate overview of the interplay of various phases. As the center of the process is a problem:

> ...we may conclude that the prime function of research is to deal with problems. In fact, research begins with a problem. When there is no problem, there is no research. And, by problems, we mean those tantalyzing, enigmatical, unresolved roadblocks to knowledge and human progress for which no answer has yet been found. (Leedy, 1981, p. 2).

One way of broadening the alternatives of conducting research studies is to consider the various phases which occur as one clarifies and pursues a research problem. Many formulations of these phases exist, none of which is probably a completely adequate description of what happens for an individual researcher. The classic "scientific method" of hypothesis-testing has rarely accounted for the process as I experience it. A version of the phases which has been helpful in conducting beginning researchers through initial

studies is (a) conceptualizing the nature of the area; (b) stating the research problem: (c) choosing an approach to study the problem; (d) collecting and summarizing information related to the problem; and (e) drawing inferences and interpretations. The phases are not lock-step, particularly when a series of studies are carried out. Experienced counsellors have much to offer at several phases even if they have done little formal research and even if they are not initially aware of the relevance of their experiences and concerns.

Conceptualizing the nature of the area

Intriguing and involving studies arise from areas of perceived importance. As a way of beginning the research process I have encouraged students to write down questions, observations, and possible associations in an uncritical way, withholding any judgments of practicality or appropriateness. Rather than separating research activity from other experiences (e.g., "I'll finish the practicum before I start on my thesis.") the business of writing down intriguing questions should arise from the places counsellors spend their time. Persisting themes of interest typically can be seen in such a listing. These themes can be converted into researchable statements of problems in a virtually unlimited number of ways; exploring some of the alternatives before embarking upon an initial study is an important way of expanding the ways research is conducted. For example, the choices range along a basic - applied continuum, as described by Gage (1963), and imply a conceptualization of what people are like along the lines of the "models of man" and of human development portrayed by Langer (1969). At this stage, considerable synthesis across fairly disparate fields may be taking place. For example, one of our students is attempting to understand the processes through which intimate relationships evolve by examining them against the characteristics derived from studies of professional "burn out". Such an experience emphasizes the choices we have available to us as we begin the research process. This phase seems to go best when time pressures are reduced and access is provided to informed feedback and dialogue.

Statement of hypotheses or questions

At some point, focussing on an initial problem or question is appropriate if a study is to be conducted. Attempts to convert every research problem into hypotheses have, on occasion, produced rather convoluted statements. Following the guideline provided by Good (1972), hypotheses are appropriate in experimental studies which have a clearly articulated theoretical base; research questions are appropriate for descriptive and correlational studies. The choice of statement of the research problem is based as much

on appropriateness and practicality as on importance. For most beginning researchers, the context of supervision, deadline dates, and reporting format should be acknowledged -- some very worthwhile research statements do not fare well in such situations. More experienced researchers should be available to give guidance about practical considerations. Unnecessary restrictions to problem statements are often, however, brought by the young researcher, typically by approaching this phase with a particular measuring device ("I want to use a semantic differential.") or a presumed conclusion in mind. In such cases, pursuit of the underlying interest or concern is warranted to expand the ways in which the problem can be stated. An important distinction to make at this point is the difference between research and program-evaluation studies (Sommer, 1977). Both are important endeavours to learn how to carry out but the purpose of each and the guidelines for doing each well are quite different. Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1978a) have developed a practical approach for program evaluation which incorporates many of the distinctions.

Choosing an approach to study the problem

A refreshing expansion of research approaches has been called for by many of the authors cited above. Essentially, the choice of research approach should be directed by the nature of the question or hypothesis. A wide variety of approaches lies before the researcher. The source of data may be an individual, many individuals, their records, or writings. Information may be collected at one point in time or over several points. There seems little good reason to continue sanctifying the experimental approach, as described by Underwood (1966) or Campbell and Stanley (1966), as the only or best approach in view of the great range of research problems pursued by counselling researchers. For many of the more important questions in our area, the responses or experiencing of each individual are of particular importance yet we seem reluctant to use individual approaches such as case studies (Good, 1972; Tracey, 1983) or single-case designs (Hersen & Barlow, 1976). The effects of a boarding-home program for rural Indian adolescents, for example, were investigated by Gingras (Reference note 1) by conducting individual case studies of ten young people over their one-year involvement in the program. At times, the information needed is descriptive in nature, such as in our recent study of the levels of empathy shown by nurses in their interactions with patients (Hills & Knowles, 1983) which tested many of the assumptions made by those who offer training in relationship skills. At other times, a combination of experimental and descriptive or correlational approaches may best produce answers to the research questions. For example, we were interested in the contributive effects of working with children in play sessions as a way of improving the communication skills of student teachers so

created experimental program (Dorner & Knowles, 1980). There are times when the meaningfulness or complexity of individuals' responses might be lost or not reported in standardized measures so alternative approaches should be created, such as in Etter's (Reference note 2) use of interviews and content analysis to study the experiencing of loneliness. Data need not be self reports, observations, or test results; systematic use of the literature (Greenwood, Reference note 3), historical documents, and personal documents (Allport, 1965) may be more appropriate for the problems under study.

Collecting and summarizing data

Data are typically collected, or translated, in a form which permits statistical analysis. Such analysis serves well to summarize much information into an approachably small number of units and to assign probabilities to results or differences among results which can be useful in guiding our interpretations. Some data do not lend themselves to such analyses and rather than forcing such information into an "interval-data" mold or not considering it, we can expand the ways in which we draw data together. For written reports, we can use figural representations, such as charts and graphs as recommended by Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1978b), or some of the new statistical approaches such as smallest-space analysis. Key statements from interviews or extended descriptions of important observations could be used. Much of what we do in summarizing data seems regulated by the demands of journal-article publication even when we use other formats such as dissertations, monographs, conference reporting, and so on. Clearly, in my view anyway, we need to become involved in these other formats and to plan ways of creatively drawing ideas together and presenting them to others in our field. For example, a group at our university called eminent researchers together for an extended " round table" session which provided a chance to discuss papers which had been circulated earlier. Other participants to the session viewed the consideration of papers and joined the discussion. A second example occurred at a large conference where a researcher presented slides from videotaped sessions with accompanying audio tape of selected dialogue to convey information about children's interpersonal skills. Articles in research journals will, no doubt, continue to be a major means of conveying information but the restrictions, lag time, and tendency to "crystallize" information which are associated with this format should be responded to with an active search for others ways of summarizing and disseminating results.

Drawing inferences and interpretations

Very few facts speak for themselves. Valid and contributive interpretation of research results is an extremely

important phase of the research process yet in most reports of research little space or attention is provided to interpretation. Effective interpretation is probably itself a science requiring an informed awareness of logical development as well as a sound theoretical base of the area being studied. The developmental psychologist Robert Kastenbaum tells the following story:

> Occasionally I have the opportunity to chat with elderly people who live in the communities near by Cushing Hospital. I cannot help but observe that many of these people speak with an Italian accent. I also chat with young adults who live in the same communities. They do not speak with an Italian accent. As a student of human behavior and development I am interested in this discrepancy. I indulge in some deep thinking and come up with the following conclusion: This must surely be one of the prime manifestations of aging on the psychological level. (Kastenbaum, as quoted by Botwinick, 1979, p.3).

The drawing of such conclusions is, in many ways, similar to the first phase of the process in requiring informed feedback, discussion and contemplation. Pursuing implications and conveying conclusions in responsible ways call for researchers who are knowledgeable both about the area under study and the audience which will be receiving the report.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Research activity in counselling is considered to be an important activity which eventually touches on the work of all counsellors. Approaches to training researchers should have the effect of increasing one's problem-solving skills as well as acknowledging the unique perspectives of counsellors and their respect for the complexity of people. An appropriate place to experience such an approach is in graduate-level training or as a team member with other counsellors. The following guidelines are presented with a view to increasing the chances that such experiences will encourage young researchers to engage in sound and exciting research and to continue in such engagement throughout their professional lives:

1. A particularly effective way to learn how to use the results of research wisely is to engage in its production.
2. The process of learning how to carry out research studies should be freeing rather than restricting.
3. The various phases of the research process are characterized by having many alternatives, thereby creating opportunities for divergent problem-solving and responsible uses of human judgment.

4. Research articles as printed in most of our professional journals are not particularly appropriate models of the research process because of the selective nature of preparing and disseminating such articles.
5. The use of research should reflect the substance of the research process, including an understanding of the alternatives chosen or not chosen in the various phases; practices such as giving long lists of authors with no descriptive information about their studies or using sweeping statements beginning with the phrase "Research says..." should be discontinued.
6. A variety of forums, in addition to journal articles and paper presentations at conferences, should be provided to convey the nature of the research process and the results of research studies.
7. The process of doing research is exciting as well as taxing; sound research should meet and contribute to our profession's respect for humankind. At several phases in the research process, collaboration with colleagues will serve us well. Inclusion of young researchers as team members on research projects or in research apprenticeship would provide for important involvement and development.

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EXPERIENCING UNEMPLOYMENT: A FOUNDATIONAL STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this article is to describe a phenomenological/critical incident approach to gathering data about the dynamics of unemployment. The study to be described started with informal observation and discussion with umemployed people. This led to the development of a model designed to describe some of the emotional reactions to unemployment (Amundson & Borgen, 1982); and to the implementation of a research study that has involved interviewing unemployed people using a phenomenological/critical incident approach. At the time of writing, one hundred and ten people have been interviewed and the data is in the process of being analyzed. The focus of this article is on the original model developed and the research methodology employed to investigate the validity of the model.

Our motivation for conducting the study into the process of unemployment arose from the fact that there seemed to be very little foundational information in this area. Some studies were conducted in the 1930's that involved informally interviewing people about their reactions to unemployment (Bakke, 1933, Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Jahoda, Lazarsfeld, & Zeisel, 1933). In addition, a few studies that have incorporated interviewing unemployed people have been written in the 1970's and 1980's (Briar, 1976, Cohn 1977; Strange, 1977; Sinfield 1981; Swinburn, 1981, Jahoda, 1982; Marsden, 1982). These studies have tended to describe part of the unemployment process but have not incorporated both the job loss and job search reactions in any comprehensive way within the North American context. The importance of conducting a comprehensive study lies in the fact that high levels of unemployment are predicted to be present for perhaps the next decade and the rate of social change created by escalating technological change suggests that people will be involved in career life style decision making over a life time. Within this context it is important that there is accurate foundational information to validate the curriculum and counselling interventions that will be necessary in helping people to: (a) develop skills necessary to cope with career change over a life time; and (b) effectively cope with periods of unemployment.

Initial Model Development

In developing some of our ideas about unemployment, we began by interviewing unemployed people and employment coun-

sellors. As a result of this informal contact it became quite clear that being out of work was an intensely emotional and stressful experience. This is not suprising since work plays an essential role in meeting human needs. In addition to providing the means to obtain food and shelter, it offers the opportunity for contact with others, sense of purpose and a basic structure to our day. (Maslow, 1968; Toffler, 1980). This all contributes to self esteem and the development of a personal identity. The significance of work in meeting social and psychological needs has been clearly outlined by the two-factor theory of work proposed by Herzberg (1966). According to this perspective:

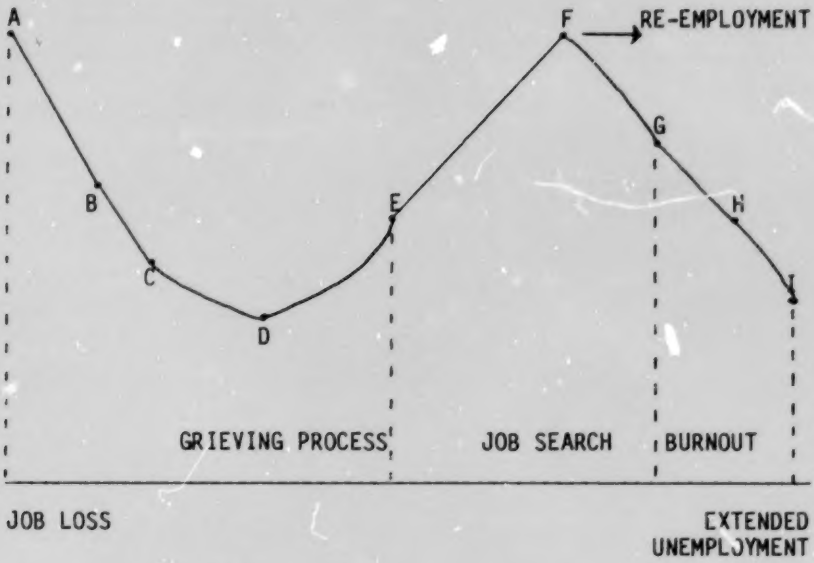
> . . . The human animal has two categories of needs. One set stems from his animal disposition, that side of him . . . centered on the avoidance of loss of life, hunger, pain, sexual deprivation and on the primary drives, in addition to the infinite varieties of learned fears that become attached to these basic drives. The other segment of man's nature . . . is man's compelling urge to realize his own potentiality by continuous psychological growth ... If man is to be understood properly, these two characteristics must be constantly viewed as having separate biological, psychological and existential origins. (Herzberg, 1966, p. 56).

The impact of unemployment can be viewed in terms of basic human needs. If work plays a significant role in meeting the needs for community meaning and structure, then the absence of work may result in a general lack of fulfillment. According to the research findings of Hepworth (1980), being unemployed results in significantly poorer mental health and subjective well-being. To be unemployed places a person outside the accepted "normal" societal system. It puts in question a person's ability to handle responsibility. It separates the person from others (the employed) and often results in feelings of deviance and worthlessness. The likelihood of boredom and acting out behavior also increases. As the period of unemployment lengthens there is usually an increase in anxiety and depression and loss of morale (Hill, 1977; Marsden and Duff, 1975).

Taking into account the theoretical perspectives just described, we developed a model (Figure 1) to explain the dynamics of unemployment that connects job loss and job search factors into a continuous process that may be described as an emotional "roller coaster" (Amundson & Borgen, 1983). As noted in Figure 1, the roller coaster involves a grieving process (Kubler-Ross, 1969) associated with job loss, and a burn-out reaction (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980) associated with the highly stressful activity of job search. The specific reactions associated with the grieving process involve denial, anger, bargaining, depression and

acceptance. The reactions associated with the job search/ burn-out phase included enthusiasm, stagnation, frustration and finally apathy. The model does not suggest that these specific emotional reactions occur in the same order or with the same level of intensity for each person, but it does suggest that each of these is probably present in some form for each unemployed person.

FIGURE 1
THE DYNAMICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT



Job Loss/Grieving Process

A: Denial
B: Anger
C: Bargaining
D: Depression
E: Acceptance

Job Search/Burnout

F: Enthusiasm
G: Stagnation
H: Frustration
I: Apathy

Researching the Dynamics of Unemployment

In considering research approaches to be selected for a study into the dynamics of unemployment, we were confronted with several challenges. The first involved a difficulty in capturing the evolution of emotional reactions over time. The second challenge involved trying to encourage subjects to freely discuss some intensive negative feelings they were

having regarding being unemployed. This suggested that some sort of rapport building mechanism was necessary to collect data that in any way accurately reflected the experience of unemployment. Taking these two considerations into account, we decided to use a research approach that combined a phenomenological method of investigation with a critical incident approach. In the sections that follow, the theoretical underpinnings for both of these research approaches as well as the specific research plans and methods used in the study are outlined.

Theoretical Rationale

Fischer (1979, p. 116) describes phenomenological psychology as having an interest in "a comprehension of experience as it is lived - existentially/behaviorally/reflectively". The characteristics of phenomenological research have been enumerated by Giorgi (1975) and are listed below:

1. Fidelity to the phenomenon as it is lived:
   "Those aspects that are selected for study are apprehended and understood within the lived context of the one living through the situation and as those aspects are perceived and understood by the researcher" (p. 99).
2. Primacy of life-world:
   "By the 'life-world' phenomenologists mean the everyday world as it is lived by all of us prior to explanations and theoretical interpretations of any kind" (p. 99).
3. Descriptive approach:
   "Phenomenology depends almost exclusively upon the power of language for communication and therefore description is its main technique" (p. 100).
4. Expression of situation from viewpoint of subject:
   "It is precisely the subject's viewpoint of the situation that provides the rich data that must be obtained" (p.100).
5. Situation as unit of research implies structural approach:
   "No factor is considered independently of the total context" (p.100).
6. Biographical emphasis:
   "According to the phenomenological approach, one comes to the general or the universal by going through the biographical and not by avoiding it. Consequently, the key terms to be employed must be developed after contact with the data and not before"(p.101).
7. Engaged researchers:
   "The initial description given in an open ended situation by a subject is transformed by the researcher in dialogue with the subject according to

intentions and aims of the experimenter's research" (p.101).

8. Search for meaning;
   "The value of the phenomenological approach is the direct access it provides to meaning by interrogating the qualitative aspects of phenomena" (p.102).

The phenomenological approach just outlined allowed unemployed people to describe quite freely their experience of unemployment without being led to one emphasis or another by direct questions of the interviewers. The exception to this approach came at the end of the interview when the interviewer asked a specific question using a direct critical incident approach.

The critical incident technique, which was pioneered by John Flanagan (1954), basically consists of the interviewer eliciting reports of concrete and specific observations from people who are in a position to determine what helps or hinders the functioning of some process (in this case the process of unemployment). The central feature of this component of the interview involved eliciting very specific reports of concrete incidents that were either high points or low points in the process of unemployment. The interviewee was asked to specify exactly what helped or hindered.

This technique has proven to be an effective method of deriving facilitating or hindering factors (Andersson & Nilsson, 1964; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Flanagan, 1978). It is particulary powerful because of its emphasis on the subject's viewpoint of a situation and the elaboration of specific behavioral incidents. From this information a category system usually becomes readily apparent. An essential aspect of this approach is that the category system must be obvious and verifiable by other observers.

Research Plans and Methods

In using a phenomenological perspective to study the dynamic of unemployment, we made every effort to set up interview situations that would allow each subject the opportunity for self expression with a minimum of imposed structure. To collect the data from the subjects, we trained graduate research assistants in a non-directive interviewing style employing open-ended questions, paraphrasing, linking, summarizing, etc.

The graduate student assistants began each interview with the following phrases:

> Please describe in as much detail as possible your experience of being unemployed. I would like you to include how you came to be out of work, what you thought about when it happened and your thoughts since, and feelings you have had during the time you have been out of work and job search activities that you have tried.

Following this statement by the interviewer, subjects tended to speak quite freely about their experiences. After a period of time, generally about 45 to 50 minutes, the interviewer focussed each subject's responses to get a more specific consideration of the high or low points in the person's experience of unemployment. The following questions were asked in this regard:

> Think back over your experience of unemployment. Perhaps it is easiest to begin by describing what you considered to be your lowest points during this time. Now, taking the first low point, tell me again exactly what happened and why it was so difficult for you at the time . . .
> Let's now turn to the more positive high points of your experience. Taking the first high point tell me again exactly what happened and why it was so helpful for you at that time. . .

In employing this combination of phenomenological and critical incident approaches, it was our hope that we would get an accurate expression of the unemployed person's experience of unemployment along with a few of the more important happenings that either helped buoy a person up or were extremely difficult for the person.

Subjects Interviewed

The research was conducted in the Greater Vancouver area. The 110 subjects for the study were volunteers who were registered with Canada Employment Centres. In making the selection of subjects from among the volunteers, every effort was made to sample a broadly based group. The final subject pool included youths, immigrants, as well as men and women not specifically identified from these groups. In addition, we made an effort to interview people who had been out of work for a minimum of three months so that there would be some time period upon which to comment during their interviews. Subjects were asked to complete a demographic information questionnaire at the end of the interview that would provide us with information regarding the subject's age, sex, marital status, previous occupation and length of unemployment.

Data Collation and Analysis

To this point, we have been involved in summarizing the data from the interviews. Reliability of the rating procedures of student assistants was checked every tenth subject. Initially, the interviews were transcribed and then the transcriptions were summarized using a content analysis format. Trained research assistants then used the

summaries to transpose the information onto rating sheets. These rating sheets focused on several components:

(a) emotions experienced;
(b) time sequence involved with the occurence of particular emotions;
(c) events or behaviors accompanying specific emotions;
(d) coping strategies employed;
(e) job search strategies; and
(f) future expectations.

At the time of writing, we and our research assistants are examining shifts in stated emotion along with the events that were concommitant with these shifts.

Research Results

Although the data analysis is incomplete, it is already evident that there are variations among individuals and across groups in how they experience unemployment. However, it is possible at this stage to cite certain overall trends that seem to be emerging. Some of these trends support the original model while others suggest differences. One of the major points of departure involves the characterization of the process as an emotional roller coaster. Most subjects would describe it as more like a yo-yo involving rapid emotional shifts that appear to be out of the control of the person experiencing them. Another major modification to the original model involves what happens to a person near the end of the apathy phase. This was the point at which the original model ended. Several subjects have reported a very intense period of self evaluation in which all of the job search activities resulting in rejection have been somewhat internalized and the unemployed person is confronted with his or her own value as a human being. The results of this introspection contains several implications for the worth of the person independent of his or her related role, and the value of work for that person. Aspects of the original model that seem to have been verified by the research study include the loss and burn-out components originally postulated. The information collected further indicates the importance of some type of counselling interventions that go beyond the simple provision of job search strategies. The results point to the need to move into the area of supplying some measure of emotional support and meaning for unemployed people. More specific information will be available upon completion of the data analysis.

SUMMARY

The phenomenological/critical incident approach employed in this study has provided us with a wealth of information about the process of unemployment. These methods seem to be appropriately suited to the goal set out

at the beginning of the research project that was to develop a foundational structure to explain the dynamics of unemployment. This foundation can set the direction for further empirical studies as well as for effective counselling interventions.

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A FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT OF A THANATOLOGY CURRICULUM

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RATIONALE FOR THE SELECTION AND APPLICATION OF GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY

Grounded theory methods have been successfully applied to the sensitive subject area of death research initially by Glaser and Strauss (1980). When this researcher used grounded theory to study thanatology, it was found that the following steps must be employed:

1. Interview a representative segment of society in an open, unrestrictive manner, permitting each participant to voice his personal convictions freely regarding a specific pre-determined topic (Guba and Lincoln, 1981);
2. Collect and study the transcribed tape-recordings of these face-to-face interviews (Spradly, 1980);
3. Code the data, integrate commonalities found within more than one interview, write memos in the margins of each interview, which may later serve as indicators towards constructing possible theory based on common factors found in these interviews, (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973); and
4. Generate theory based on the information gleaned from the analysis of these interviews (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975).

It has been argued by some critics that qualitative research, when used as the sole instrument, "acts like a sieve which selectively collects and analyzes nonrepresentative data (Bodgan and Taylor, 1975, p. 12)". The one research element which is ignored in such a criticism is that the researcher actually acts as a sieve in all forms of research. When survey research is undertaken, questions are chosen which correspond to the researcher's own notions of what is important; this places reality into the preconceived structure of the priorities of the researcher (Speier, 1973). The qualitative researcher uses techniques which minimize potential for personal bias in data collection and interpretative analysis stages of the study.

Further criticism of the application of grounded theory methods relates to the "generalizability of the qualitative reseacher's findings to other settings or subjects. In other words, how do we know that the settings or subjects we study are at all representative (Bodgdan and Taylor, 1975, P. 12)"? If it were feasible, the qualitative researcher would interview a wide and varied sample of subjects. Time and financial resources always impose restrictions on the size of the sample selected. This is not really an insurmountable problem, since subjects and settings are usually

similar, even though they retain their uniqueness (Tripodi and Epstein, 1980).

This permits qualitative researchers to study specific social processes in any one setting or through any one subject. As this observation takes place, the researcher hopes to view certain general social processes as they happen under any particular circumstance. In this way, "some aspect of social life can best be studied in each setting, or through each subject, because there it is best illuminated (Hughes, 1958, p. 49)". Therefore, the knowledge of what should be included within a death education course could be determined by talking with persons who have suffered trauma in death-related issues, persons who have been involved in death education within the community, or persons who have attended seminars, workshops or death education classes. Through interviewing such people who have been affected by the issues of death and thanatology, we should discover some of the needs of society, even though these requirements have been gleaned from the representative sample of twenty-four persons with expertise in the area.

Some critics also charge that qualitative researchers obtain unrepresentative data because of their presence among the subjects (Shaffir et al., 1980). Certainly the presence of the researcher will affect their subjects' reactions to questions, but these efforts can be minimized. If the interviewer does not impose his views but leaves questions open-ended, and if the interviewer is cautious to talk only when it is necessary in order to continue the flow of conversation, these factors will prevent undue influence upon the subjects (Spradley, 1979). The researcher must evaluate his personal influence upon the subject when he analyzes the data.

Interviews or questionnaires do intrude as a foreign element into any social setting which they would describe (Webb, 1966). The researcher must be aware that his methods can create distortions, and that potential bias is frequently the result of sincere efforts to comprehend the complexities of society.

The observation of human behaviour -- what people say, how they feel, and what they do -- is a potent method of recording how those individuals intrinsically interpret their own world. In the application of a nondirective style of interviewing the interviewer serves as a catalyst for an expression of the subject's feelings (Kidder, 1981). This face-to-face observation of the participant stimulates open communication to develop between informant and interviewer more easily, with a minimum of anxiety (Eisenberg and Delaney, 1977).

The techniques devised by Glaser and Strauss (1978) were used in an effort to develop a mode of inquiry which was emergent, holistic, and contextural, as opposed to a type of statistical analysis which could not be fully applied to death issues. Schatzman and Strauss (1973) stressed that the flexibility of grounded theory methods

permitted considerable freedom for the generation of new theory. This investigator observed human events through listening to a person describe given situations from the realities of his own life. This method was selected as it permitted the development of an abstract, logical and empirically-grounded representation of observed events within natural situations.

In the use of the Glaser and Strauss (1967) approach, substantive concepts and hypotheses were seen "to emerge first, on their own, which enabled the analyst to ascertain which, if any, existing formal theory might help him to generate his substantive theories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 34)". Meaningful communication with another person through in-depth interviewing thus generated information which could serve the purpose of improving situations previously considered stagnant.

By using tape-recorded interviews, the real feeling and opinions of the individual frequently surfaced, and offered the researcher an opportunity to learn the attitudes of subjects in much greater detail and honesty than do quantitative surveys (Wax R., 1971).

Glaser and Strauss (1965) had originally developed their grounded, substantive theory on awareness of dying, in order to develop concepts and hypotheses which would facilitate the understanding of their theory by medical and support staff. They discovered that their emergent concepts were both analytic and sensitizing. Furthermore, their work developed concepts which provided a necessary bridge between the theoretical thinking of the sociologist and the practical thinking of those people actually concerned with working with terminally ill. Grounded theory, generated in the manner in which Glaser and Strauss applied it, seemed a logical method to fit research done on thanatology: it has been considered general enough in its scope and is readily understandable in its methodology. It is a qualitative rather than a quantitative methodology.

Despite the criticism that the advent of computer processes may eventually result in a further increase in quantified studies, qualitative research does continue to play an important role in the growth of sociological knowledge. Communicating with another human being frequently develops a sharing of thought and emotion which manifests a type of experience, often including the experience of both participants (Blalock, 1970). In each interview, the expression of ideas developed, expanded and clarified latent concerns on death-related issues.

Spurling (1977) stated that as we listen to others speak we understand their viewpoint of themselves. We respond to the demand made upon us in our world, through speech with one another. "If we want to understand people, then we should study people, and we should devise concepts and methods appropriate for that study...all knowldege has meaning only in relation to life as it is lived by people every day" (Keen, 1975, p. 11). In order to study people in

the most thorough and reliable manner, the grounded theory method was selected.

It was not an easy and straight-forward method to apply. In addition to the time and effort required in the field collecting data, the enormous amount of transcription and analysis of data, there is also the onerous task of writing grounded theory (Durkenwald, 1973). In comparison, more traditional methods of curriculum development rely mostly upon standard methods of social research which are not directly formulated, controlled by, or related to, exactly how a theory can be developed from the data.

As the analyst becomes thoroughly steeped in the subject area, a sensitivity evolves which permits him to be capable of generating categories in as multivariate a fashion as his own fields of background study permit. In this way, the understanding and explanations of the data can become flexible and theoretically tractible.

REVIEW OF GROUNDED THEORY QUALITATIVE RESEARCH TECHNIQUES FOR NON-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PROCESSES: THE INTERVIEW PROCESS

Unstructured interview tactics permit access to a natural research setting which would encourage participants and observer to enjoy conversations which could flow smoothly. By listening to and questioning the interviewee on a topic fraught with emotional potential, one hoped that some general aspects of thanatology issues would emerge. These ideas would then be considered in the eventual design of a death-education curriculum.

The process of interviewing people in order to discover how they feel about any topic "is usually inconvenient, to say the least, sometimes physically uncomfortable, frequently embarrassing, and, to a degree, always tense" (Shaffir et al., 1980, P. 3). The task of selecting, meeting and interviewing acquaintances and strangers is laden with many feelings of uncertainty and anxiety. Being immersed over an extended period of time in a research area such as death involves some morbidity. The reseacher is also exposed to situations and experiences which create an intense concern regarding the management of the inquiry. There are continual reflections about such matters as to how the pre-arrangement hurdles may be overcome, and how relationships can be maintained and cultivated throughout a study. Some aspects of field research consist of "getting close to the people involved in it, seeing it in a variety of situations they meet, noting their problems and observing how they handle them, being party to their conversations, and watching their way of life as it flows along" (Blumer, 1969, p.37). By comparison with many other research strategies which are primarily intended to verify previous studies, "the fieldwork approach is most amenable to what Glaser and Strauss have termed the discovery of grounded theory" (Shaffir et al., 1980, p.6).

In the application of field research, data collection is shaped and influenced by hypotheses, and themes which emerge in the course of the investitgation. Interview-based research encompasses the simultaneous development of data collection, coding and analysis. As the researcher attempts to record the experiences, interests and impressions of the participant, there frequently develops an intense interaction between the researcher and the subject. An intimate understanding is gleaned regarding the subject's unique perception of his world.

In the initial interviewing procedure, no pre-established categories were selected into which the original data would be cast. The unstructured interview methods did not control or stifle the freeflowing of "voiced thoughts". Within the interviewing process employed during research, there is an accompanying

> set of experiences that are, for the most part, unavailable through other forms of social scientific research. These experiences are bound together with satisfactions, embarrassments, challenges, pains, triumphs, ambiguities, and agonies, all of which blend into what has been described as the field research adventure (Shaffir et al, 1980, p. 7).

THE INTERVIEW SEQUENCE

The sequential steps of the interviewing process were delineated into four stages by (Shaffir et al., 1980) around which the experiences could be co-ordinated: (A) entering the field setting; (B) learning how to play one's role while there; (C) maintaining and surviving the kinds of relations involved; and (D) leaving the setting. The interweaving of these stages may also occur concurrently in the interview method, depending upon such variables as the participant's and the observer's personalities, personal interaction, and environmental distractions (Babbie, 1979).

(A) Entering the field setting was managed for this research in the following manner: each person was telephoned in advance: the purpose of the interview and the research to be based upon these interviews were clarified: the qualifications of the interviewer were outlined: and the reasons for the selection of the participant were explained. It was ethical to share this information. Probably the design of the research or the relevance of the problem is not of much value to most participants, but "rejection and opposition are most likely to occur when the people we approach do not understand what we are doing and what we wish to know" (Shaffir et al., 1980, p. 26).

(B) Learning how to play one's role within the interviewing setting took some practice. Listening was an essential attribute which, in order to do well, required patience, sensitivity and awareness. Silences

were not treated as enemies, but as short time intervals during which the participant was able to re-organize his thoughts, or come upon another novel idea. As closely as possible, the contributions of the informant were relied upon.

What Dexter referred to as "nonstandardized treatment" was accorded each interviewee, which involved the following:

1. stressing the interviewee's definition of the situation;
2. encouraging the interviewee to structure the account of the situation;
3. letting the interviewee introduce to a considerable extent his notions of what he regards as relevant, instead of relying upon the investigator's notions of relevance (Shaffir et al., 1980, p. 102).

Questions were asked to initiate the interviewing process, or to rephrase statements in order to be certain of the intentional meaning by the respondent. In some cases, questions were posed as probes when the person wandered too far away from the topic.

(C) Maintaining and surviving the several kinds of relations involved was not a simple task. Each interview offered a unique experience in dealing with human nature, and required definite coping skills which had to be acquired and sharpened. When the interview did not seem to be going well, genuine interest, politeness and common courtesy seemed to be valuable assets. It was an essential interviewing strategy "to communicate the idea that the informant's views are acceptable and important" (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973, p. 74). The promise made to mail typed transcripts of the data to each participant caused them to feel relaxed and confident. They knew that they could alter or delete any section of this material before it would be analyzed. Mailed transcripts were sent with the permission form to use the data, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. While most interviewees desired anonymity, some individuals permitted me to use their names for scientific purposes. Confidentiality was protected whenever was requested.

(D) Completing the interview was a strange experience, since the interview, as an unstructured design did not distinctly end. It would cease when the tape ran out and made a click as it was rejected from the recorder. Sometimes a "rambling on " about an unrelated topic would indicate that the interviewee had exhausted his ideas or concerns. The individual was thanked for his help, and each participant kindly offered his aid for any further assistance needed. The end of the interview was polite, friendly and unrushed.

THE INTERVIEW AND GENERATION OF THEORY

Glaser and Strauss (1965) established in their studies that no procedure can concurrently generate and test propositions. The generation of theories requires flexibility, lack of structure, intuition and detailed description. However, the testing of propositions uses control, structured techniques, precision and logical transition from premises to conclusions. The explanatory inquiry of what should be included in a thanatology curriculum necessitated the use of the constant comparative method, as the most effective means of generating hypotheses and grounded theory (Shaffir, 1980). Glaser and Strauss (1965) advanced three reasons why such an explanatory investigation usually turns out to be considered as a complete and final research on any particular topic. "First, the qualitative findings are taken by social scientists to be final. Second, interest wanes in conducting further research on the phenomenon. Third, before researchers can mount more rigorous studies of it, it has changed considerably" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 234).

THE INTERVIEWER AND RELIABILITY

The difficulty in acquiring an accurate impression of how most people respond to death-related issues can create problems of validity or reliability. It is not known whether another researcher with similar methodological training, comprehension of the study of thanatology, and rapport with the participants would process identical observations. Obviously, the experiences of the researcher can effect all of the following aspects of validity and reliability:

"1. Reactive effects of the observer's presence or activities on the phenomena being observed;
2. Distorting effects of selective perception and interpretation on the observer's part; and
3. Limitations on the observer's ability to witness all relevant aspects of the phenomena in question (McCall and Simmons, 1969, p. 78)."

No useful data can be collected without a feeling of security and compliance existing between the interviewer and the participant. They must feel safe and confident with one another. It is normal that inexperience in interviewing techniques can create further anxiety and tension for the novice researcher. It would seem that the stress caused by a desire to succeed in the interviewing process can either create a heightened sensitivity or a mental block to the information available. In an effort to obtain valid data, the interviewer can become so anxious that he restricts his vision. He can try too hard. His own tension, or emotive orientations towards the subject can influence his behaviour and his views of the participant's contribution to the study.

The attitudes of peers and "the personal and theoretical viewpoints of mentors and significant scholars can imperceptibly channel our research vision" (Shaffir et al., 1980, p. 13). It is almost impossible to totally ignore biases within investigations involving the interviewing of individuals. In addition, the participant usually brings along his own contributing share of prejudice.

Nevertheless, Becker argues that in contrast to the more controlled quantitative methods of laboratory experimentation and statistical survey interviews, interviewing in the field is least likely to permit the researcher to skew his results towards agreement with his own expectations. "The field worker inevitably, by his continuous presence, gathers much more data ... makes and can make many more tests of his hypotheses than researchers who use more formal methods" (Becker, 1973, p. 43).

THE INTERVIEWEE

As the interviewer proceeds in the collection of his data, he is never really sure of the consequences or the real value of his research. He is generally relying on instinct and hunches because he has not pre-determined the nature of his studies through any use of surveys or experimentation. The complexity of actual interviewing, and the inability to identify the significant dimensions or categories which could assist in observations or questioning, often causes the interviewer to feel bewildered (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973). Any interviewer may have "the disquieting notion that they are gathering the wrong data" (Becker, 1970, p. 312), but confidence is acquired with further practice.

The interviewing method of research can become an all-absorbing occupation, permitting time only for necessary familiar duties. A strange motivation can overwhelm the researcher (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973). The need to know the results of his investigation pushes him towards organizing his perceptions into a type of grounded or inductive theory. This phenomenon can occur while he is still collecting the data.

One technique which can decrease the concern for validity within the data is to provide written transcripts of the interview to each subject (Babbie, 1979). This permits any alterations to be made by the participant before the data is analyzed. In order to conduct research which is maximally unexpected findings inspire new ideas (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973).

Within a formal pre-arranged time and place, the decision to employ non-structured interviewing, in order to obtain the data for this research seemed to be a normal, sensible one. "People usually go about their daily activities talking to each other. Talk is one of the most powerful resources human groups have at their disposal for organizing social life and communicative behaviour" (Speier, 1973, p. 58).

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS BY EXPERTS -- CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Prior to the main interviews on which this research was based, a meeting of experts was held. The intention was to raise major issues related to death education prior to the interview process.

In Toronto, in March, 1981, a group of a dozen educational administrators and higher education instructors met with eight doctoral students at the Ontario Institute for the Studies in Education, of the University of Toronto. For six hours they critically viewed the potential introduction of death education into the Ontario school system at the tertiary level of education.

The symposium concluded with the following basic concerns:

1. the objectives and clarified outcomes must be clearly stated within the curriculum design of a death education course, to be instituted within a college-level program;
2. the structure of the course must be within a decision-making framework;
3. a set of skills should be provided to aid the student in dealing with problems related to his own potential death, that of a significant other, or in making decisions towards the enrichment of his own mortality;
4. some consideration must be given to death concepts as stress-development agents, and provisions must be made of needed skills to combat stress;
5. the ethical factor was raised concerning the emotional taking potentials of the course upon the participant. They must be forwarned of this possible influence at the initial class.

These were valid points for discussion when one considered design and implementation of a course topic as controversial as thanatology. Input from educational administrators and instructors is extremely helpful also towards a sound understanding of the problems of introducing an innovative course into the college or university curriculum.

The eight hours of critical evaluation of the potential introduction of death education into the Ontario school system at the tertiary level of education were given very careful consideration when this researcher applied their advice in two practical situations. First, a course taught at The Sault College of Applied Arts and Technology in the spring and fall of 1981 gave some thought to implications of the following recommendations:

1. the inclusion of a unit on coping with stress;
2. consideration for the re-evaluation of life;

3. the encouragement of communication of death-related fears; and
4. the practical knowledge and skills which would assist the individual to cope with death, dying and bereavement.

Guest speakers were invited, such as a lawyer, a funeral director, a nurse, and a Life Skills educational program consultant. Field trips included a funeral home and the emergency area of a hospital. Art therapy was employed as a means of communicating death fears (Kubler-Ross, 1978). Small group discussions and numerous films and video tapes rounded out the four-week courses. These were considered successful by the college, and this researcher was asked to expand the program to the college credit status.

In addition, the two workshops provided to senior secondary school students also benefited from the recommendations offered during this critical seminar with educators. This analysis by experts had the further value of raising many of the issues that were subsequently expressed by the interviewees.

THE INTERVIEW METHOD

Since grounded theory experimental design requires the systematic generating of theory from raw data which has been obtained through social research, the method of talking to people face-to-face, as recommended by Studs Terkel (1975) was employed.

Formal interviews were arranged, which occurred at specific predetermined times and places by telephoned agreement, so that informants were prepared for the topic beforehand. The purpose was carefully explained during that telephone call, and again at the beginning of the actual interview. The host was assured of confidentiality, and asked if permission could be granted in some cases for the application of his name within the research.

Prior to the actual taping, an informal chat took place which clarified the researcher's qualifications, and the intended use of the material. A second meeting was planned after the tapes had been transcribed, and a form requested written permission to use the material. Once the stage had been set for the interview, the first encounter in verbal communication would proceed.

The particular stance which this researcher took in interviewing each individual was to employ the following variables: to discuss his feelings about death, how he was handling this in his own life, what his needs were in order to cope better, and how a death education course could aid in the comprehension of the reality of one's own mortality, or assist in the acceptance of the loss of a loved one.

In some cases, the informant's interests led to a change in the goal of the interview, and an additional idea to consider within the research. In other cases, the infor-

mant would go completely off the topic, and into a personal area of his life which did not deal with any aspect of this research, and the interviewer had to ask specific questions to pull the topic back on course. This was done only infrequently, and generally the thoughts and ideas of the informant were allowed to flow as naturally as possible.

THE INFORMANTS

In selecting the twenty-four persons to be interviewed, specific criteria were predetermined.

CATEGORIES

1. Representation by Age Groups:

Late Adolescence	18 - 21 years
Young Adulthood	22 - 26 years
Middle Age	27 - 45 years
Old Age	60 - 80 years

Four persons were interviewed, one representative from each age group.

The initial research pattern devised was to determine if any apparent need existed for thanatology related to age criteria. Few differences, but numerous commonalities, emerged from the interviews related to age criteria alone. Therefore, the study was expanded to include three additional categories.

2. Representation by Death Education Involvement:

Eleven people were also interviewed who were involved in some form of death education within the community, to determine if they discerned any needs related to their own experiences with death-related issues.

3. Representation by Students of Death Education Courses or Workshops:

Four students from the two pilot courses and two workshops conducted by this researcher were interviewed. Two students of a death education unit taught at Central Algoma High School were also interviewed. These six interviews were completed in order to determine strengths and weaknesses in the instruction of death education. This input could be helpful in the future design and application of such courses.

4. Representation by Lecturers on Stress-Related Illness:

Three guest speakers presented a full-day workshop for educators, open to the community, on stress-related physical and emotional problems. These lecturers were interviewed

prior to their delivered address to determine any relationships between stress and death issues. All offered their assistance, readily, for clarification of any salient points of their talk directly linked to death and stress. All guest lecturers granted permission for their material to be used within this research, prior to the actual taping session.

These twenty-four informants were selected by using the following criteria: their willingness to be interviewed, their interest in the research, availability, and direct involvement in death education in some form within the community.

PROBLEMS AND DISCUSSION

Some problems were experienced throughout the interviewing process. Frequently, an awkwardness would arise created by several things: a sudden or intermittent background noise, personality factors which made rapport difficult, or the state of exhaustion of either the interviewer or the participant. A complete freedom was sometimes hindered by an informant's lack of trust in confidentiality, despite constant reassurances. In some cases, the informant would urge that whole sections of the interview be deleted during the actual transcription.

During the interviewing procedure an attempt was made to maintain an interested, caring but detached attitude. Involvement with the participant was necessary to ensure the gaining of confidence. Each individual needed to be certain that the researcher was listening to and interested in his conversation. Short comments were made by the interviewer usually only when necessary to encourage a natural flow of conversation.

Interviews were in some cases refused, on the basis of the following stipulated reasons:

1. the person would be out of town for a considerable length of time (i.e. in Europe);
2. the person did not grant interviews;
3. the secretary would not allow me to get through to the person, she took messages, but none of these was responded to as far as I knew (i.e. I may have been researching in the library or in class when the calls did come through);
4. the person was simply too busy to schedule any interview for the next four months, but I was told to call back. When I did follow this up, the person was not available for any interviews.

In other cases, interviews were graciously granted, and I was treated with courtesy and kindness during my visit. The rewarding experience of meeting with the informants and sharing their ideas and concerns in thanatology has provided one major aspect which must be considered in any in-depth

interviewing. The vital importance for assured confidentiality and sensitivity, particularly during the interviewing of people regarding a topic which has a potential for intense emotional trauma, cannot be over-emphasized.

An effort was made to probe into what the participant was saying by restating what they had said as a way of summarizing throughout the interview. This allowed verification that the recorded data was truly what the participant had intended to express. Since one tried to refrain from actually shaping the participants' responses, questions were usually used only to guide towards the maintenance of a flow of conversation. If the question could not develop naturally from what was already said, then it was posed. Sometimes this goal was not adhered to and the participants gave specific responses without developing the idea further. The interview would stagnate unless the interviewer then asked a probing question.

The in-depth interviewing required many hours of organizing, actual interviewing, transcription of tapes, editing, proof-reading and retyping of these transcripts. Including the second visit with each participant, to obtain his signed approval for the use of the material, each interview took a minimum of seventy hours.

PRINCIPLES OF CATEGORIZATION

Upon completion of the tape-recorded face-to-face interviewing, the analysis of the obtained data was initiated. There were basically three steps used to obtain information from in-depth interviewing:

(1) investigating the phenomena of death by an overview of the literature;
(2) investigating general essences of people's attitudes towards death issues; and
(3) apprehending essential relationships among these voiced feelings regarding death.

Due to the many complexities of qualitative data, it was not a simple matter to analyze these interviews. The data varied in level of abstraction, frequency of occurrence, and in relevance to specific questions within the research. They varied in the source and the ways in which they were obtained. Because of these many variables, it was impossible to predesign analytic operations with any precision (Guba and Lincoln, 1981).

Linked to the many inconstant considerations related to the data, is the unique diversity of each analyst. Individual training, experience, interest and personality will cause specific styles of analysis. Some researchers may be content dealing with uncodified, anecdotal data; others will laboriously codify their data and apply systematic analytic techniques to arrive at their final theories.

The fundamental task in the analysis of qualitative data is the discovery of significant classes of things, persons and events, and the properties which characterize them. Linkage develops as the analyst names classes and joins one with another by the use of simple statements. This process is continued until these statements fall into some type of pattern, or set. These steps produce an operational model to be used in attempting to account for the data (Glaser, 1978).

The first step in gaining a theoretical sensitivity to the data is the entrance into the research setting without preconceived or predetermined ideas. Lacking a prior hypothesis, "the analyst is able to remain sensitive to the data by being able to record events and detect happenings without first having them filtered through and squared with pre-existing hypotheses and biases" (Glaser, 1978, p. 3). In this manner, he can maintain his mandate to remain open and flexible to what is actually happening within the research data. The major objective in the grounded theory approach is to generate substantive theory. In order to fulfill this task, descriptive information is obtained through very careful, systematic data collection as the source for theoretical analysis. Substantive theory must be grounded within that data, and generated from it.

Analysis is no real departure from ordinary thinking, even though it may be complex, logical and purposeful in its intent (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973). As with each step in the research process, analyzing data necessitates thinking that is self-conscious, organized, systematic and instrumental. This interactive process between the research and his experience or data can commence with the first data collected, or it can begin after much or all of the data are obtained.

Substantive theory requires the task of establishing and linking classes, or categories to be undertaken. In order to produce new grounded theory, the data is studied, until commonalities begin to emerge from the data itself. These are coded and separated into groups. Such groups are then linked together to determine causes or similarities. The experiences contained within the interview are interpreted and checked by a continual sifting of the data. In this analysis step, a certain distance must be kept between the analyst and his data, in order to provide a perspective on them. Instinct and hard work are combined in an active pursuit of meaning from the data.

As the researcher continues to question his study of theoretical sampling, he becomes selective and focuses on particular problems. As he codes, he asks himself the following questions, right from the start of his work: "What is this data a study of? What category does this incident indicate? What is actually happening in the data?" (Glaser, 1978, p. 5). These three questions keep the analyst focused on patterns among incidents when he is analyzing, collecting and coding his data. These patterns yield codes, and enable

him to rise conceptually above anecdotal experiences. The data is consulted directly, creating priorities, sometimes teasing and coaxing ideas, and then searching for supporting or negative evidence for these concepts (Holsti, 1967).

The material is analyzed line by line, as one codes each sentence. This is a painstaking, tedious procedure at first but as codes emerge and saturate, the job becomes easier and faster. Only through the steadfast application of memoing and coding can a full theoretical coverage, which is thoroughly grounded in the data, be achieved. Perhaps the most exciting prospect of producing grounded theory is that the conceptual idea is its essence.

The coding method is entirely related to the underlying pattern between data and theory. A set of indicators within the data emerges, which develops from the hypothetical relationships between the categories and their properties (Glaser and Strauss, 1965).

The analyst continues to fracture the data, grouping it into codes that develop into a theory. The highest goal of the analyst is to generate an emergent set of categories and their properties which fit, work and are relevant for integrating into a theory. The data is coded in every possible way in order to achieve this goal. This open coding technique permits the analyst to see the direction in which his study is headed, before he has settled on one particular focus (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). Relevance of his work is, therefore, better assured.

No one else can do the coding for the analyst: since he must make the selective decisions for determining the eventual route which his study will follow, he is on his own. Having an assistant could only lead to confusion (Glaser, 1978). In generating grounded theory the analyst is responsible for ensuring that the categories of the theory fit the data. Data cannot be forced or selected to fit pre-existent categories, nor discarded in favour of retaining a pet theory intact.

The analyst actually delimits his coding to those variables that relate to the core in sufficiently significant ways. He must look for conditions and consequences that relate to that core process. As he begins to restrict his open coding to selectively code, he is guided by the core variable. This delimits his work from open coding, but he must use a method that facilitates high sortibility or flexibility. The analyst must keep track of coding indicators which tell when a code is saturated.

If the analyst skips past the memo stage and goes directly from coding to sorting or to writing, he is not considered to be doing grounded theory. Memos illustrate ideas about codes and the analyst's developing theories while he codes (Glaser, 1965, pp. 436-45). Memos develop from abstract ideas and lead towards final ideation. A proliferation of ideas is generated by grounded theory, and the only way to store those ideas is to write memos.

The theory which develops should be able to explain what happened in the research, predict what will happen in the future, and interpret what is occurring in the area of substantive inquiry. It becomes relevant as it allows the core problems and processes to emerge. This generative nature of grounded theory has implications for new research in the area. It opens up the mind of the analyst to a myriad of new potentials for ideas, research, formal theories, projects and for further variations in method. It shows the analyst where he should collect more data to expand upon ideas, and makes him realize that no matter how much more theory is generated the task is never completed (Glaser, 1972). However, he must stop within the confines of his substantive area and the limitations imposed upon him within the field study.

CATEGORIZATION IN THIS STUDY

When this researcher decided upon the use of grounded theory as the "best possible fit" for the analysis of the topic of thanatology curricula, three basic questions about the value of this mode of research were considered. These were as follows: would the procedures of grounded theory provide the:

1. optimal approach to the problem;
2. maximal use of personal expertise; and
3. broadest dissemination of results to others involved in developing and using the information obtained? (Leik, 1972, p. 14)

During in-depth interviewing for this qualitative research, each respondent varied "in his knowledge and interest concerning the various aspects of the research topic" (Cole, 1976, p. 161). The unstructured interviews permitted this researcher an opportunity to learn the attitudes of the informants in great detail and honesty. By the establishment of rapport between the informant and myself at the beginning of the interview, the feelings expressed were candid and expansive. Interviewing twenty-four different persons who had experience directly related to death trauma or death education created a triangulation which enabled this researcher to see upon which elements all those persons interviewed agreed or disagreed. It was then necessary for the interviewer to sort this testimony into different categories.

The initial or preliminary analysis was done as a short summary at the end of each interview. This served as a method of pacing or sequencing the total workload. It helped in the development of observational strategies, particularly since some later emphases were shifted or simplified towards a better understanding of the emerging ideas. The preliminary analysis also served as a check or test method with subsequent interviews, fostering some

unique probing questions (Glaser, 1978). Although there was no assurance that any of the initial analysis would prove useful or valid, preparing the brief summaries did save this researcher from a crushing task of sorting out an enormous amount of data later on. It summed up a "first look" at the data.

The secondary analysis was commenced at a point in the data collection when a forced lull occurred between interview appointments. This available time was used to pursue the data collected from the first eight interviews. Therefore, coding and memoing were commenced on this material. This step was also helpful in subsequent interviewing, because some ideas which the first interviews had developed made this interviewer more aware of a similar or contrasting viewpoint as the interviews progressed.

In some cases, a memo would start as a scribbled code word in the margin, a sentence, a paragraph or even a page or two. The relationships of one memo to another was seen as the work progressed.

In order to provide adequate writing room to memo, and to facilitate the scissor-cutting of the memos with the interviewed comment intact, the field notes in this research were typed to take up only 2/3 of the page, providing ample room to write in the margins. A complete set of field notes was retained.

Memos were written as a continual process that started with the first data coding, and persisted throughout the sorting and final writing of theory. As the memos developed, it became obvious that specific ideas were common throughout the interviews. As these ideas which were seen to develop became related to others, the categories began to emerge. Connections were seen to develop more rapidly as the work progressed, and the amount of coding decreased as commonalities were discerned more rapidly. The grounded theory did develop with no outline or ideation considered ahead of time. The categories and properties were sorted out by "similarities, connections and conceptual orderings. This (method) forced patterns which became the outline" (Glaser, 1978, p. 117). The categories developed as this researcher used a constant comparison (Glaser, 1978) and questioning technique.

The final "cutting off point" or saturation of the data collection resulted from several things. One was the fact that there was a stoppage of codes and memos. It seemed as though the second half of the twenty-four persons were essentially repeating many of the basic theories that had already been stated. Therefore, theoretical saturation had been achieved (Glaser, 1978). As a direct result, there was an arbitrary closure or cutting off of the data collection. Sorting of material from the twenty-four in-depth interviews resulted in the emergence of the following ten categories:

I. Fears associated with death;
II. Stress and death;

III. Mini-deaths;
IV. Euthanasia;
V. Suicide;
VI. Modern society and death attitudes;
VII. The death of a famous person;
VIII. Personal philosophies;
IX. Communication requirements and death issues;
X. Death Education considered.

The generation of theory was based on further scrutiny of the material sorted under these categories.

THE GENERATION OF THEORY

The actual generation of theory depends upon a continual comparison, first between categories and the themes which emerge from them, and secondly of relations between the various categories and their properties. These categories and their elements illustrate both similarities and differences (Glaser, 1978). They have emerged from the data, and are continually developed and checked for relevance (Glaser and Strauss, 1980).

Once the observer has coded and sorted the data by hypothesis, "he should examine the extent to which the items in each coded category support the respective hypothesis" (Bodgan and Taylor, 1975, p. 87). The continual comparison method is necessary in order to develop the substantive theory. Glaser and Strauss explained that substantive theory generates new grounded formal theories and reformulates previously established ones (Glaser and Strauss, 1965). The results of employing grounded theory will not always be the discovery of novel theories, but previous work could also be replicated or confirmed by the application of this unique research tool. These concepts emerge from the data, and develop through a progressive building up of facts through substantive to grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

This generation of categories and constant comparison between one theme and another, rapidly develops generalized relations among them (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Therefore hypotheses are generated in this manner. As an amount of evidence accumulates, categories and their themes emerge and become inter-related, to produce a core of emerging theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1965). This rapid emergence of theory, called the "momentum effect" (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973) can crystallize only through careful collection, coding and analysis of the data. These three operations must be done together, constantly, so that they "blur and entwine continually, from the beginning of an investigation to its end" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 43). This process increases the likelihood that the theory will be integrated and clear, since the analyst must make theoretical sense of each single comparison.

As the data were being fractured and placed under the ten categories which emerged in this research, some categories would become saturated. When there were no more memos which would fit under a particular category, theoretical completion had been reached (Glaser, 1978). Eventually, this did occur under all ten categories. Closure of the material was achieved, and an arbitrary cutting off of the research (Kidder, 1981) was done. Once the coding and sorting for the data by hypothesis was completed, this researcher then examined "the extent to which the items in every coded category supported the respective hypothesis" (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975, p. 87). Despite the realization that "someone always comes up with a property of another unit that the analyst missed, and that undermines the empirical generalizations or changes its conditions" (Glaser, 1978, p. 125), the study was drawn to a conclusion.

The final approach to the theoretical conclusion was "to take the core variable, and...a few of those sub-core variables that worked best, and generate their use and contributions to formal theory" (Glaser, 1978, p. 133). The results of this paper "are not proven; they are only suggested" (Glaser, 1978, p. 134). This work represents an integrated set of hypotheses, not proven findings.

THEORETICAL CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the need and design for a thanatology curriculum at the tertiary level of education. The grounded theory methodology employed in this research permitted emergent categories to develop.

These theses suggested that:

(1) societal alienation imposed upon the chronically ill created fear and isolation;
(2) grief is rejected due to a lack of communication skills;
(3) a lack of knowledge of the reality of death created misunderstandings regarding normal or abnormal bereavement;
(4) a need was expressed for thanatology;
(5) concern existed regarding the teacher's qualifications of a thanatology curriculum;
(6) life-skills approaches should be included within the course design;
(7) a re-evaluation of life goals developed.

The theoretical conclusion based upon the collected data, is that in order to alleviate societal fears which impede communication regarding death-related concerns, thanatology should be initiated at the tertiary level of education.

CONTEXT ANALYSIS: A SYSTEMS BASED RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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Counselling is defined by a philosophhy of holism (Egan, 1982; Forster, 1978; Ivey, 1979). With this in mind, a research methodology suitable for the study of the counselling process should be holistic as well. A number of authors have urged the use and development of alternative methodologies for counselling research (Anton, 1978; Carini, 1975; Eisner, 1977; Frey, Raming & Frey, 1978; Mishler, 1979; Thorensen, 1978). One such alternative which is also holistic is the systems approach of context analysis (Scheflen, 1973a).

Context analysis is a research methodology which uses the principles of systems theory as an organizational framework. It was developed by Scheflen and Birdwhistell (Scheflen, 1964, 1965, 1969, 1973a) out of work done by McQuown, Bateson, Birdwhistell, Brosin, and Hockett (1971) at the Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Science in Stanford, California. It is a combination of a natural history method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Guba & Lincoln 1982) and principles of systems theory (Brody, 1973; Capra, 1982; Miller, 1969). It examines the streams of naturally occuring behaviors (Barker, 1963, 1968), determines the basic structural units, and then integrates the units into a whole.

The client/counsellor relationship as the prime factor in counselling or therapy is central to the existential approach and to the person-centered view of counselling (Corey, 1982). The idea that the relationship is an encounter that must be experienced has been described by the existential therapists (Anderson, 1978; Gendlin, 1962; Kempler, 1967) and by Rogers (1955), who spoke of it as a total organismic response. Jourard (1976) spoke of psychotherapy as an "I Thou coupling" and described this encounter with the client in terms consistent with systems theory. Fromm-Reichmann (1967) and Hobbs (1967) both stated that the client can only be understood in terms of his or her own context. All these are holistic views of the client and the counselling process and are compatible with systems theory.

This paper presents an explanation of the principles used in context analysis and the methodoloy involved, illustrated by examples drawn from a study of a group interaction. The study was conducted originally to serve as an example of the method of context analysis for a master's thesis, and focussed specifically on leader behavior in a group.

Systems Theory

James G. Miller (1969) defined general systems theory as "a set of related definitions, assumptions, and propositions which deal with reality as an integrated hierarchy of

organizations of matter and energy" (p. 51). The term systems has a number of meanings, the most general one being von Bertalanffy's (1956) which is that a system is a set of units with relationships among them. Capra's (1982) definition of systems is that they are integrated wholes that derive their essential properties from their interrelations, rather than from the properties of their parts. He sees the systems approach as being complimentary to the reductionist approach, and not as a substitute, since both modes of description are involved: the reductionist approach to understand the details, and the functioning of the whole system. All systems are interconnected by various patterns of information flow in feedback circuits. Thus there is a nonlinear interconnectedness. The systems concept is one of stratified order, a multilevelled, interrelated fabric of reality (Capra, 1982).

The organization of living systems is based on communication among its parts. They must communicate, for without communication there is no interaction and thus no system, only a collection of passive, static units. The information communicated is not events and objects as such, but it is that relationship between them and the context where they exist (Bateson, 1972). The process of systems is explained only in terms of both the units and the relationship among them. Thus communication can be defined simply as the interaction between systems or parts of a system, using a prearranged code. (Young, 1978). Human communications from a systems point of view has been examined by Bateson (1972, 1979), by Ruesch and Bateson (1951), and by Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967).

In applying the principles of systems theory to a research methodology the levels of a hierarchy become the organizing framework. Each level of organization represents a different degree of complexity. These levels are interconnected and interdependent with each communicating with its total environment. Order at one level is the consequence of self-organization at a larger level. Because the measure of a system is greater than the sum of its parts, the complex systems at higher levels exhibit characteristics not observable at lower levels. Miller (1969) called these 'emergents' and these characteristics would be neglected if only the parts of a system were looked at.

The practice of a systems-based methodoloy must follow the "rule of levels" which was described by Miller (1969) as being the identification of the level of reference, and never switching levels without stating so. Failure to do so can be particularly confusing when the subject of study is a group, where the individuals and the group itself can both be seen in terms of a system. In practice, any level is really the level of the observer's attention, since we can pay attention to only one thing at a time, and cannot focus on two things at once.

Context Analysis

It is Scheflen's belief that behavior is communicative. That is, it is patterned and structured according to some tradition (Scheflen, 1973a). Therefore, it is recognizable and meaningful, and behavior is the basis for communication. This view is shared by anthropologists E.T. Hall (1959,1976) who equates culture, behavior and communication, and Rosalie Wax (1971). She defined culture as acquired knowledge based on a shared meaning, the result of communication among the members of that culture. Communication pattern are learned in a culture, and the meaning of these patterns rises out of their contexts. Without context, there is no communication (Birdwhistell, 1952). Trager (1966), a linguist, also equates culture and behavior saying that all human behavior is a learned system of activity in order to communicate.

Each participant in an interaction follows some blueprint or program to guide his or her behavior. These programs of behavior allow for a wide range of individual variation, as they contain alternatives which allow for adaptation by different individuals to different situations. Young (1978) makes the point that programs are written in languages. They must have a physical embodiment as signs and symbols. In any interaction people provide signals; they signal the speed of a program, their comprehension, their status, their social roles, and signals about the interaction itself.

Methodology

Scheflen divided the research procedure into five major operations, these being: (a) obtaining an audiovisual recording of a transaction, (b) mapping the behavioral events, (c) delineating the units of communicative behavior, (d) determining the units of transaction, and (e) the contextual analysis of the behavioral process.

The audiovisual record. The preffered transaction for study is one that is a naturally occurring one with participants who know each other and who are familiar with the type of transaction taking place. The premise is that behavior is communicative to those who are familiar with the tradition. For this purpose strangers in a laboratory would not be suitable. The site should be prepared in advance with the camera in place. The participants should be prepared for what is to take place and should be agreeable to being recorded. An observer should be present who notes and records information about the context of the site and events that occur off camera. A stratified sample should be developed by locating the transaction in a category of transactions, and other samples of this type should be obtained.

Mapping the behavioral events. Mapping appears as a technique whenever a conceptual model is invoked. Formal

processes of mapping, translation, or transformation are in principle part of every step of explaining a phenomenon. The relations which remain constant under such transformation may be of any conceivable kind (Bateson, 1967). In recording all behaviors, both verbal and nonverbal, on a time graph a topographical map is made of the transaction. This map is a transform of the transaction in which all relationships remain the same.

The medium for the map is graph paper such as that used for recording various physiologic functions. The paper is divided vertically into time intervals which can be fractions of a second for recording microbehaviors or several seconds for recording gross behaviors. The paper is then divided into horizontal rows, one for each body part that can be moved and observed. Additional rows are added for the recording of contextual data such as events that occurred off camera, interview data, and the verbal behavioral record in the form of a transcript. This map provides the data for the analysis of the transaction.

Delineating the units of behavior. The map is examined for recurring patterns and relationships at whatever level of observation was chosen for the entry point. If a particular unit or type of behavior is of concern then it is marked and the remainder of the map is scanned for a recurrence of that unit. Behaviors and contexts that occur with the unit are noted and variations are described.

The units of transaction. Units of behavior can be examined in relation to other units contributed by the same individual over the time span, or they can be related to the behaviors occurring at the same time by other individuals. As the units are integrated into larger units of behavior it becomes apparent that the units are structured hierarchically, and each stage of complexity is a level in systems terms. The larger units of behavior make up the program of the interaction. In order to determine the regularity of the larger units such as the stages of a program, the sample can be enlarged and other transactions of the same type can be examined in the same manner.

The contextual analysis. Communicational events are explained by relating them to later systems of events and contexts. In order to do so, the immediate context of the transaction is first examined. This includes the immediate environment and the subjective data gained in the interviews of the participants. The broader context of the situation is also examined, and included information about the traditional practices, rules, and values of the culture of the participants.

Lastly, the sampling can be expanded in four ways as a quasi-experimental approach. The same transaction can be examined in other ecosystems and with people of different social positions, the same people can be studied in a different type of transaction, and the same type of transaction can be looked at in a different cultural setting.

SELECTED FINDINGS

The Position

The analysis of the transaction was begun at the level of the position, as this was easiest to observe. According to the level of behavior, postures indicate the beginnings and endings of units of communicative behavior, the relationships among participants, and the steps in a program. The position is defined as a complex communicative unit involving a sequence of simultaneous units of activity. A speaker will hold the basic position until a larger unit of speech behavior is completed, or until is is interrupted. The position has markers to indicate the beginning and ending of its occurrence (Scheflen, 1973b).

The examination of the positions held by the group leader during the transaction revealed that not only did these indicate the stages of the program, but also the steps of the stages. The entire program was thus seen to be hierarchically structured, based on the positions the leader assumed, and the markers he displayed while these positions were held. An overview of this structure can be seen in Table 1, which also gives a description of the positions and the content of the steps and stages of the program.

Of particular interest is the structure of stage two, which is divided into 12 steps. The first three steps, problem, and discussion, made up a sequence that was repeated throughout the stage. It occurred twice more in its entirety, and at the end with a modification. Thus, stage two is divided into four subsections of three steps each.

The Point as a Unit of Communication

The next unit of communicative behavior examined was the point unit. Scheflen (1973b) described the point unit, a term borrowed from linguistics, as a unit that is made up of a number of smaller units. In linguistics, these smaller units are sentences. Thus a point unit is a number of sentences which make up a 'point' in a conversation. This unit is next smaller in size than the position and is a lower level of integration of behavior. The point unit also has markers that indicate boundaries and a transfix to mark the duration.

Only one example of a point unit will be discussed here, as it has a special significance to the counsellor. The meeting opened with introductions being performed by everyone in turn. The second person to introduce herself was Betty, and Victor, the leader, was third. As Victor started to talk, Betty suddenly put out her arm and pointed to someone across the circle. This interrupted Victor, who reached out to touch her arm to stop her. The interruption was very brief and Victor continued with his introduction.

Table 1

The Structure of the Program:
Postures, Steps, and Stages

Leader Postures	Steps of the Program	Stages of the Program
The leader position: sitting erect with hand in lap; relative immobility	1. INTRODUCTION 2. EXPLANATION 3. VERIFICATION 4. EXAMPLE	Introductory stage
The facilitator position: full range of motion of all bodily parts; mobility.	1. Judy's problem 2. Betty's problem 3. discussion 4. Elaine's problem 5. Nancy's problem 6. discussion 7. Tom's problem 8. Susan's problem 9. discussion 10. Betty's problem 11. discussion 12. discussion	Problem presentation stage
Combination: the leader position, followed by the facilitator position followed by the leader position	1. how to decide 2. voting 3. discussion	Decision stage

Birdwhistell (1971) believed that the first minute of an interaction contains a preview of the events that happen later. The incident of Betty interrupting the proceedings, and extending herself across the group space, happened at 0.9 minutes of the interaction. That this was indeed a miniature of later events can be seen by what occurred later in the transaction. When Betty presented her problem she stood up and leaned forward across the space, gesticulating while she was talking. She became less and less clear and was unable to define her problem. This interrupted the program, and Victor stopped her with a touch on the arm.

Balance as a Leader Characteristic

When Betty sat down after her first standing explanation, Victor leaned back and unzipped his jacket. For the last few seconds he had not been watching Betty. After he unzipped, he leaned forward again, but this time he placed his left arm on his hip, thus raising the shoulder next to Betty. He was now leaning slightly away from her, but had his head turned towards her. His position now was asymmetric, off balance, in contrast to all his previous positions. This lasted unitl he finally asked for help from the group, after which he leaned back.

As a group leader and facilitator Victor's posture had been characterized by a balance and symmetry. He was now off balance, and had temporarily abdicated the position of leader. It seemed that the loss of balance, the loss of being in charge of the proceedings, was also accompanied by an awareness of self, as opposed to an awareness of others. This awareness of self was seen in the unzipping of the jacket. That he had suddenly become aware of his self, of being hot, was also brought out in the interview with Victor.

That the loss of the leader role is accompanied by an awareness of self was seen further in a second videotape, comprising an extended sample. The counsellor/leader in this videotape was also in a posture of perfect balance and symmetry in movement, until he gave a response to the client that was inappropriate. A silence followed for several seconds, and then the counsellor dropped his head to one side, and slouched sideways in his chair. In the next exchanges with the client, the counsellor used only one hand to gesticulate, whereas previously he had used two hands in balance. When he was interviewed later he mentioned that he had suddenly become aware that he was freezing, and that his legs were actually trembling from the cold.

Balance: A Systems Characteristic

Capra (1982) described homeostasis as a continuous state of fluctuation between an upper limit and a lower limit. This is a state of dynamic, transactional balance in which there is great flexibility. Thus there are a large

number of options to choose from in any situation. Scheflen (1973b) stated that either stasis or oscillation can maintain dynamic equilibrium for a phase of time. Then some parameter is introduced, and the system stabilizes in some other state for a time. Balance was observed in the videotaped meeting at both the system level and the suprasystem level.

The system level. The system under discussion here is the group leader, Victor. As has been mentioned, his position as leader was characterized by physical balance which was of two types. In the first type, the right and left halves of his body were mirror images of each other. He was seated squarely in his chair, arms down, with his hands resting in his lap. As he spoke his hands moved together. In the second type, as he spoke he would gesture to the right or left, and these gestures were alternated.

There was only one time that this balanced positon that generally characterized the role of the leader was used in a different context. This occurred when it was time for Betty to attempt to state her problem the second time. Victor had been sitting next to her, his chair closer to her than to Susan on his other side. Prior to addressing Betty, he reseated himself, and moved his chair back to the center spot beween the two women. He was sitting in the leader positon, erect and balanced, but he was still in the facilitator stage. Therefore, it must be presumed that the balanced posture here must derive its meaning from a different level, the suprasystem level.

The suprasystem level. When Victor reseated himself in the center spot prior to coming back to Betty's problem, he was apparently centering, or balancing, the group itself, as if to provide for optimum conditions to meet whatever Betty would do. As he waited for her to start, he looked at the floor, a neutral or perhaps a central spot. Betty then presented her problem clearly and concisely. Victor then returned his chair to its previous position, off center and closer to Betty. So the suprasystem returned to its previous stable state.

DISCUSSION

Limitations

This methodology does not permit statements of cause and effect nor does it allow for predictions of behavior. Birdwhistell (1976), in the original study from which the method of context analysis was derived, concluded that what is conveyed by any particular behavior must be discovered anew in each context. The focus in context analysis is on the meaning of behavior, a meaning that is derived from the relationship of behavior to its context.

The question of generalizability of results is always a major one in any research methodology. Any information gained through this method must be limited to similar inter-

actions involving similar participants from similar subcultures and institutions. That is not to say that further evidence cannot support a particular finding or resulting hypothesis. One way to accomplish this is to extend the sample size. In this particular study the characteristic of balance as a leader quality received additional support by the use of the second videotaped interaction using a different leader.

The limitations of any study lie in part with the limitations of the tools being used. The lack of sophisticated video recording equipment limited the range of possible findings in this present study. In order to precisely examine behavior it is preferable that the videotape be playable at a slower than normal speed, allowing for the observation of microbehaviors. Secondly, a means of precisely locating a moment in time is important in order for the relationships of units of behaviors of various participants to be determined. Not only was this impossible with the standard equipment used but it became apparent after being viewed over 100 times that videotape stretches. What had been recorded in early viewings as happening at a certain number on the tape counter was found to occur one to one-and-a-half numbers later on late viewings, a difference of six to nine seconds. The preferred equipment would be a camera that allowed for a time scale to be recorded simultaneously on the tape with the interaction being filmed. The play-back equipment would be such that a play-back at half speed would be possible.

Advantages

The result of the method of context analysis is a thick description which can then serve as the basis for further investigation or for generating theory. The procedures involved in making the topographical map of the interaction require that the focus of attention is on only one part of one participant at a time. This focusing of attention on only one level of behavior results in knowledge gained that is otherwise inaccessible. We normally focus our attention on the speaker in any interaction and especially on the verbal message that is being sent. A videotaped recording of the transaction eliminates these problems provided that the nonverbal behaviors are watched without the distracting presence of the sound track.

Significance

The significance of taking a systems approach to research in counselling lies in the concept of the client/counsellor unit as a whole, where a change in one part of the system will bring about a change in the other part. Seeing the client/counsellor relationship as a system also necessitates accounting for the programs or plans of behavior that each brings along, and the cultural system to which each belongs.

One of the characteristics of living systems is "the ability to reach out creatively beyond physical and mental boundaries in the process of learning, development, and evolution " (Capra, 1982, p. 269). Living systems can create new structures to adapt to changes in the environment and they can create new programs of action. Human nature is unique in its ability to conceptually live in the future, setting new goals, and then working to achieve them. These characteristics of living systems are precisely the goals of counselling. Therefore, if we can study the counselling system in terms of structure and function, with methods designed specifically to do so, we can come to a better understanding of this system and can work to improve its functioning.

Implications for Counselling

This study supports Scheflen's findings that behavior is regular and programmatic, and that it is structured in a hierachical way. It also supports Birdwhistell's belief that participants preview later events in the first minute of an interaction. It also found that physical balance seems to be a characteristic of the leader role. These findings have implications for counsellors.

It is obvious and well known that a great deal can be learned from observing the client's nonverbal behaviors. Counsellors are also aware that they themselves communicate by their own nonverbal behaviors. It is also known that we communicate our roles and status in a situation by the way we behave and dress. A more specific awareness on the part of the counsellor can lead to a more immediate knowledge of the relationships being displayed in an interaction.

The importance of the first minute of an interaction should also be considered by counsellors. If this previewing of later events is in fact a consistent occurrence, it can provide valuable information and be of help in determining the structuring of the interview, and this first minute would deserve careful attention.

If the consellor is considered as a leader in the relationship who determines the course of the interview, the matter of balance becomes important. In relation to this, a sudden return to an awareness of self, rather than an awareness of the client, would be an indication of a plan of action gone astray and the loss of the leadership role.

Learning the method of context analysis itself might also provide additional training for the counsellor. Observational skills become finely tuned through practice, and the mere awareness of different levels of observation serves to bring them to notice. The detailed mapping of interactions may improve interpersonal sensitivity, and also serves to emphasize the need to integrate rather than isolate behavior and people in contexts. The practice of context analysis can serve to sensitize the counsellor to the behaviors going on around her and to her own contributions to the pattern.

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SCHOOL SETTINGS AND FUNCTIONS OF COUNSELLORS: A STRUCTURAL PERSPECTIVE

M.G. (Yaya) de Andrade

> The fundamental role of those committed to cultural action for conscientization is not properly speaking to fabricate the liberating ideas, but to invite the people to grasp with their mind the truth of their reality. (Freire, 1978).

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, counselling activities have taken place in families, among peers, with medical professionals, and at other community resources, such as churches. Such activities have been prevalent in most, if not all cultures (Herr, 1979). From the standpoint of comtemporary theory, counselling activites of this kind have operated from what we can call a broadly humanistic orientation. No special training or skills were needed for participation in such activites, rather, what was called for was a kind of altruistic care and concern for the well being of individuals in distress.

But we must be careful not to confuse the origins of counselling as an activity with its origins as a profession. This transformation of counselling involved not only new and different concerns from the traditional activity, but new theories and research methods which replaced the humanistic orientation with what we regard as essentially technical and professional activity in character. In other words, the origins of counselling as a profession are essentially pragmatic, technocratic. This historical divergence of aims, theories, and methods appears to lie at the heart of present day controversies over the proper nature of school counselling. History reveals this divergence in the aims of school counselling, its functions and its origins.

Over the years school counselling became transformed from an explicitly vocationally oriented activity, in the beginning of this century, to an educational form of intervention through courses in life ajustment, life skills interactions (Nevison, 1981; Nugent, 1981). Counselling in school has provided students with information, advice, and skills to select and pursue particular occupational and social roles. More recently, school counselling has aimed at prevention, extending its activities into the elementary level, and emphasizing the "normal" aspects of one's development (Allan, 1980; Altman & Herman, 1982) and combining individual and group or family approach (Friesen, 1983).

As professionals working in an institution that represents and reflects dominant societal interests (Mueller, 1973), school counsellors need to search the forces which led to the development of their profession as it is. It is important to understand the existent conditions in order to analyze the chances for new developments and transformations

of counselling within schools. Thus, a major set of questions is: who are we, professionally? What is our role in schools? Who do we call clients in schools? How do we express care for our clients? What do we do to contribute to our clients' improvement?

Answers to these questions need to be created based on one's own reflections and on the historical observations of schools, counselling operating in it, the socio-political factors that molded particular professionals, and the history of our profession within the educational settings.

Three Historical Models of School Structure

Keeping firmly in mind the impoverishment of historical research on Canadian school counselling, and recognizing the need for this work to be done, we can nevertheless describe, however tentatively, three historical models of structures within schools. Counselling can be described according to models that define counsellors' actions and emphasis. The professionals can be viewed as resources within the school structure. Their roles can be: (1) independent of other structures, (2) adapted to them, or (3) actively and critically involved with them.

Figure 1
Independent Structures

The first model can be described as one in which counsellors operate with the assumption that each individual is a singular factor in a context. Each person operates in an isolated way, each one is singled out for counselling purposes. For these counsellors school is school, politics are politics, counsellors are counsellors, theories, events, are all singular instances, distinct one from the other. Each facet seems to work independently with little or no effect upon others.

In the same way they see problems of clients as independent and isolated, defined in abstraction from situations within the problems. Problems are to be resolved as if they were isolated, psychological and individualistic in nature. Solutions to problems may often be defined in terms of an established set of values, not of the clients, but of the counsellors themselves or those who feel they are responsible for the clients. Sometimes these values are defined

in terms of current fashions, circumstances, not historical, developmental forces within the individual in the context.

The training of these counsellors ignores the contradictions within the concrete situations in schools, in which counsellors and other professionals, as well as students, are involved. It encourages a noncritical acceptance of historical events in which the professional identity has been shaped. It transmits an extensive body of theories and models and strategies, in the belief that increasing essentially disjointed theoretical knowledge of counsellors, they enhance both individual competency and collective reputation and efficiency. It seems that the assumption is that this training enables professionals to make better judgements about one's development and interactions, thereby making possible the identification of constructive and rehabilitative activities for clients. With this training, counsellors promote counselling as selfsufficient and perhaps arrogant. Other times counsellors are viewed as neutral specialists or members of a foreign, technical assistance mission in the school.

These counsellors appear to be unaware of the interdependence of their actions, their beliefs, and of the extent to which their roles were created and even imposed by others. They overlook the constraints of their practice, creating and sustaining a subsystem in which independency and even alienation are stimulated and promoted. They rarely involve themselves in assisting clients to understand and anaylyze problems within a larger context, for this might call for changes extending beyond the individual and into aspects of the larger structure - the school. This practice is either oppressive, by imposing other's values, or ineffective, with the recognition of one's own values, but subsequent avoidance of these values, because they seem to be irrelevant to the context, which ultimately controls the counsellors and clients.

Figure 2
Adaptive Structures

Inevitably, counsellors in schools influence students, teachers and administrators, either by adapting their own behavior to the status quo of the system or by helping others to identify values that are in closer conformity with the system and its expectations. Training programs for counsellors with this belief of adapting in the context

produce professionals who understand school and education on business, mechanical, and organizational terms. They see their activities pragmatically (Nugent, 1981).

For counsellors operating in adaptive structure, clients are those who need to learn that they need to improve, and to improve means to accept and adapt to the systems as it is, to be incorporated and integrated into it. The values and behaviors of counsellors reflect their assumed role of guardians of the school, and its current status. For such counsellors school and society do not need to change dramatically, and if they do change, it is because of others concerned with it, such as politicians, scientists, researchers, educators; not because of their actions and their client's actions within their reality.

In adaptive structures, teachers and administrators are primary source of referral of clients for counsellors. Clients are involved in counselling when they interfere with the expected school programs, when they are perceived as having behavioral difficulties, emotional problems or when they exhibit inappropriate repertoire in class and on the school playground. The role of counsellors in such structure has been criticized indirectly, in many books and papers. Carr (1977) pointed out that education tests can be symbolically represented by "guillotines" and the role of counsellors in schools as "toughening student's necks" or changing their perception of the blade from "steel to jello".

Among other things, counsellors in Canadian schools must be aware of the multicultural aspect within the population as well as the racial complexity within our clientele (Westwood, 1983). Counsellors have been operating in adaptive structure and consequently they are concerned with the development of strategies for changes of clients' behaviors but certainly they are not requiring challenges to the institutionally defined social interests of those in control of the students and the schools. Szasz (1973) pointed out that psychiatry has been perceived as a practice which benefits the maintenance of institutions, not clients. In the same way, counselling operating within adaptive structure can be considered a functional part of the social control, based on the interests of a dominant social and political class, for the maintenance of schools as they are.

It seems useful to consider the role of research in Canadian counselling. Most of the published material appears to favour adaptive structures. Usually colleagues report on procedures and strategies, surveys, new ways of using our time in the school setting, programs for groups, etc. There are researchers concerned with the current state of the art of counselling in Canada. At a recent conference (CGCA-Fredericton, 1983) various issues were raised in a round table discussion on research within our profession. Among other issues, it pointed out the myths, especially those we have been trained to accept and believe: objec-

tivity, problem, single methodology, average, normality, samples.

More and more these discussions are leading to a third model of structure, operating within an interactional, a network of factors. Basically, research in counselling has been originated from as well as originated practice. We see the main purpose of research as well as practice in counselling, as a generator of knowledge, a systematic body of knowledge. In fact, we have been adding knowledge on top of previous knowledge. Then, as counsellors, we develop some laws that become more valid as more knowledge is added to them.

At this point in time it is necessary that counsellors reflect critically on the fact that the knowledge we generate is based on our interactions with specific populations, in specific contexts. Most of the time we call clients those within the context, especially those who do not have control over the context, and the knowledge they generate to counsellors. These clients are not involved in the process of generating knowledge, or at least they are not notified of their involvement. They also do not discuss or profit from such knowledge. And as we, counsellors, they simply accept the knowledge. A third category of individuals within schools make decisions based on this knowledge, especially regarding the conditions of the context. I refer here to the administrators, policy-makers, editors, and bureaucrats.

Figure 3
Dialogical Structures

The dialogical model implies a recognition that people and schools are not a simple sum of intentions and services. Rather, they represent a dialectical complex of relations among historical and current practices, involving all the participants of the context, and the public at large.

In this model, counsellors are actively engaged in transforming the existing system and practices for the benefit of all within the structure. Both counsellors and clients are committed to a dialogical interaction, a co-investigation which raises their conscientization (Freire, 1970). This model represents a pedagogic strategy to be implemented with and not for counsellors in schools, in a struggle to regain humanity. To regain humanity means,

here, to recognize that the counsellor-client relationship is, above all, a human relationship, and not to be defined in terms of technical means and ends strategies.

If we apply the knowledge originated in other contexts we will not necessarily improve our clients, but certainly we will guarantee our jobs, and even become an elite as professionals. Sometimes our positions, methods, and strategies are related to a context, in a historical sense, and they are not necessarily validated in other settings, in different times. As knowledge is power and as one enhances his /her power when adding more knowledge, an elite within a profession controls the existent knowledge, mainly through publication and training. Becaude of this development and the conventional orthodox use of research in counselling, we now are asking what is valid to us, here and now?

Our attempts to achieve objectivity at the present time are denied because as counsellors we share the essential humanity with our clients. We are subjects of the same laws they are, our presence in schools has an impact on the natural process of education in general. Our values, as their own values, have molded our lives and altered our ways of interacting.

Freire (1973) has criticized education in technological societies because it tends to "domesticate " one's critical reflections. He says, "excluded from the sphere of decisions being made by fewer and fewer people, man is manoeuvered by th mass media to the point where he believes nothing which he has not heard on the radio, seen on TV, or read in the newspaper" (p.34). From this perspective, counselling is not an isolated or an adapted professional specialization anymore, but an emanicipatory project carried out in humanistic and humanizing interactions by teachers, social workers, therapists, concerned peers, altruistic bystanders, compassionate friends (Peavy, Robertson, and Westwood, 1982), who help others in their difficulties about issues related to their lives. A major question remains: How can counsellors participate in developing a pedagogy of self-liberation for educational and social enhancement?

Through dialogues we search for the expression of our awareness, our knowledge, our biases. Within dialogues, we find two dimensions: reflection and action. We prepare others, and ourselves, for a real democracy. The pedagogy promoted by Freire rejects teacher-dominated and subject matter oriented education. Since his early writings he differentiated "banking education" from what he calls a "problem posing education " as shown in Table 1. Banking education is promoted by those who perceive themselves in the role of depositing knowledge on others. Knowledge is not perceived as a consequence of a free, creative, and active dialogue. In contrast, problem posing education is basically the same as dialogical counselling. It is based on dialogical co-investigation, engaged by all involved in a structure in a given time, analyzing the historical factors

within their structure and the effect of their actions upon this reality.

Dialogical counselling can also be related to "Participatory Research " (Kassan & Mustafa, 1982) in which the following principles are coincident:

1. Those involved in counselling learn to make choices that are meaningful for them, liberating themselves and others from oppressive conditions, from myths created by others.
2. It studies individuals and settings multi-dimensionally; there is a close involvement of those within the contexts, in analyzing its history and current conditions. Dialogues are emphasized.
3. It is implicitly a rejection of value neutrality and the concept of the counsellor as a tool or as a technician. The counsellor must have sensitivity and democratic identification with the clients in the schools.
4. The approach is problem centered. Counselling focuses on real problems for which there are only proximate solutions; sometimes there are no available solutions. It is exploratory, research and development oriented.
5. The results of the counselling process can be acted upon by policy makers; educational and psychological research and political conditions can be changed.
6. It stipulates a respect for clients' own capacities and potentials to produce, analyze and reproduce knowledge that has been the monopoly of professionals alone.

In dialogical structures clients and counsellors will perceive new relations between behaviors, facts, and values, and this process will transform their routine (their shools) which has been perceived as a meaningless sequence of historical and current values, into a meaningful existence. The more critical and aware they become, the more implications will be discovered and their reality will be creatively and purposefully transformed by them. Then, the act of transformation is never finished, for it involves a constant search to know something else, to perceive something in a more complete way. It is self-renewing and hence, constantly renewed activity.

Table 1

Banking Education
1. The learning experience starts with an assessment by the teachers. 2. The learning experience is oriented to learning and memorizing of subject matter. 3. Learning is focused on theoretical problems for which there are probabilistic, correct answers. 4. The teaching methods rely on monological, lecturing and predetermined lessons. 5. Students as well as teachers are involved in objective, detached experience involving learning and teaching.
Problem Posing Education
1. The learning experience starts with the identification of reality as perceived by the learners. 2. The learning experience is oriented to reflection and action. 3. Learning focuses on real problems for which there are only proximate solutions, sometimes there is no available solution. It is exploratory, research and development oriented. 4. The teaching methods rely heavily on dialogues; a co-investigation is undertaken by teachers and learners to identify themes that are relevant to the learners' experiences with the teachers.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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The qualitative research tradition has its roots in anthropology, sociology, and, to an extent, in psychoanalysis. More recently, other disciplines such as administration, education, linguistics, child study, evaluation research and various sub-groups within psychology are developing and using qualitative research methods to an increasing extent.

There is now discussion of both a qualitative "tradition" and a qualitative "paradigm." The tradition arose from the problems faced by researchers in sociology and anthropology who were separated from those whom they wished to study by language, culture and ideology. As other types of researchers have taken an interest in qualitative methods, it has become recognized that a reconceptualization of the phenomena studied is also required. Thus the term "paradigm" has come into usage. A paradigm is a set of principles which organize the overall vision of the objects of inquiry. It is such a set of principles, especially epistemological assumpcions, which establishes the rationale for methods of study.

Counselling is a discipline which attempts to deal directly with individuals in their own life-worlds. Counselling is never done in the abstract. It is always a matter of concrete, personal doings of two people -- counsellor and counselled -- with one another. Further the help-seeker never seeks help in the abstract. "Help" is always needed with on-going life processes, events and relations. Counselling requires social involvement in the world of everday, common-sense living.

Believing that the researcher in counselling is indeed a variety of social scientist, it is our contention that the qualitative tradition can, and should, be utilized to a much greater extent in the world of counselling. The purpose of the following selected bibliography is to bring attention to useful works in six areas of qualitative inquiry. We use the terms "qualitative" and "naturalistic" interchangeably. The six areas are:

1. General orientation to naturalistic (qualitative) methodology.
2. Phenomenology.
3. Grounded theory.
4. Participant observation.
5. Critical incident.
6. Case study and life history.

With the exception of the first area, each set of references is preceded by a short definition of the specific method. The reader should understand that this bibliography is in no sense comprehensive. Rather, it is intended to direct attention to selected works which we have found to be both informative and thought-stimulating for researchers in counselling.

GENERAL ORIENTATION TO NATURALISTIC (QUALITATIVE) METHODOLOGY

Essential Readings

Bogdan, Robert Taylor S., Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods, New York: J. Wiley Sons, 1975.

Elliot, Robert, "Fitting process research to the practicing psychotherapist", Psychotherapy: Theory, Research Practice, Vol. 20, No. 1, 1983, pp.47-54.

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PHENOMENOLOGY

Phenomenologists claim that there are multiple ways of interpreting experiences available to persons at any given time. Through interactions with each other, people construct meaningfulness. Human reality is, to a great extent, negotiated reality, and the "stuff" of negotiation is meaning. On every level, we agree with each other, either explicitly or implicitly, what we are up to in our lives, and how the actions we take are to be interpreted -- that is, what our actions "mean." Another way of saying the above is to say that reality is "socially constructed." Upon this philosophical claim, phenomenologists use a variety of research methods to study various aspects of human reality. These include direct observation, interviewing -- usually unstructured or only slightly structured -- theme analysis, structure interpretations, and others. Many modern phenomenological researchers are close in their interests (meaning, symbolic interaction, multiple reality, importance of subjectivity) to symbolic interactionist perspectives. An excellent example of a phenomenological method applied to crisis experience, is Rowena Hunnisett's thesis study: A Phenomenological Analysis of Crisis Experience in a Lesbian Community: Implications for Counsellors.

Essential Readings

Barrell, James J. and Barrell, James E., "A self-directed approach for a science of human experience," Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1975, pp.63-73.

Colaizzi, Paul F., "Psychological research as the phenomenologist views it," In Existential-Phenomenological Alternatives for Psychology, Valle, Robert S., King, Mark (Eds.), New York: Oxford University Press, 1978, pp. 48-71.

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GROUNDED THEORY

"Grounded theory" refers to a research methodology which is used to build (i.e. "ground") theory on the data collected from many, different sources of data. No hypotheses or theoretical constructs are held in view before beginning the research. Rather, the first part of the

research is used to "discover" what the real research ideas or "hypotheses" are. The grounded theorist is not putting together a puzzle whose picture is already known. Instead, the picture is being "constructed" as parts are assembled, coordinated, and interpreted. Various research procedures can be used in grounded theory research, such as unstructured interviewing, direct observation, participant observation, document analysis -- in general, most forms of field work methodology. Probably the most important procedure is the constant comparative method used by Glaser and Strauss (1965, 1967, 1972) (See also Bogdan and Biklen, pp.68-70).

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Anderson, B. Marlene, Death Education - A Formative Assessment of a Thanatology Curriculum at the Tertiary Level of Education, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Toronto, 1982, (see chapters 4, 5).

Berger, Peter and Luckmann, Thomas, The Social Construction of Reality, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1966.

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

As the term implies, this research method means being in the presence of others on an ongoing basis and having some nominal status for the others as someone who is part of their daily lives, or at least part of the specific life activity of theirs which is under study. The role of participant observer, or "observing participant" gives one an opportunity to see if people "mean what they say and say what they mean." There are a number of specific research procedures associated with participant observation and a good source of studying these is Spradley's PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION.

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CRITICAL INCIDENT TECHNIQUE

The critical incident technique or methodology is a set of procedures for collecting and organizing direct observations of human behavior. The purpose of the technique is to provide evidence (organized and interpreted observations of behavior) useful in solving practical problems and in developing broad psychological principles. Emphasis is placed upon observed "critical incidents" of special significance and meeting systematically defined criteria. To qualify as "critical" an incident must occur in a situation where the intent of the act appears to be clear to the observer and where the act's consequences can be observed and definite enough to leave little doubt about the effect of the act. Two basic principles of critical incident methodology are: 1) directly observed acts are data superior to opinions, impressions or ratings, and 2) observations, and reporting of observations should be limited to those acts which, in the opinion of competent observers make a significant contribution to the activity under study. There are five steps to the critical incident methodology:

(1) determine and define the general aim of the activity to be studied;

(2) develop plans, specifications, and standards for collecting and classifying the observed behaviors;
(3) collection of data, usually by direct observation or through interview;
(4) analysis of data in the form of summary and description in a form which can be used for practical purposes;
(5) interpretation and reporting of the findings (including a statement of the requirements of the activity in light of this study, and including both limitations and values of the study).

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CASE STUDY

There are two forms of case study, naturalistic and experimental. The purpose of experimental case study methodology is to analyze behavior experimentally within the domain of the single subject. Typically, the focus is upon the experimental manipulation of independent or treatment variables and the objective assessment of dependent variables in order to determine if observed changes in the behavior of the subject is causally related to independent variables (therapeutic interventions). The goal of naturalistic case study methodology is to study and describe, in detail and in depth, an social unit as a whole, e.g., an individual, a group, a process, an interaction, a community, an organization, for the purpose of gaining an increased understanding of the phenomenon in question. Case studies have also been made of a single repository of documents and of a social event.

Essential Readings

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VALUES AND ATTITUDES FOR TOMORROW'S EDUCATION IN QUEBEC

Jacques Perron, Ph.D., University of Montreal
Florent Dumont, Ed.D., McGill University

RESEARCH GOALS

From a theoretical point of view, to study the relationships between values and attitudes.

From an empirical point of view, 1) to describe the values and attitudes on which future education in Quebec should be based; 2) to compare in terms of values and attitudes subjects belonging to different cultures, involved in different fields of study, preparing for different professions, and forecasting different career patterns for women.

PRESENTATION GOAL

Considering that the length of time planned for this presentation has been cut by half, we will consider only the results related to attitudes and to career patterns for women even though, from a methodological point of view, we will also provide a description in terms of values.

METHOD

A. Subjects. Representing a total group of 898, the subjects in this study were male and female francophone (N: 613) and anglophone (N: 285) students selected from ten (10) colleges located on the island of Montreal.

B. Instruments

1. Value Survey. Measures two series of values that subjects rank order. Terminal values correspond to end-states of existence. Instrumental values refer to modes of conduct.
2. Education: Attitude Scale. Measures two attitudinal stances toward education: Progressivism and Traditionalism.
3. Career Patterns for Women. Measures three career patterns for women: traditional, double-track, and unconventional.

RESULTS

A. Career Patterns for Women*

The proportions of subjects' preferences for career patterns for tomorrow's women are as follows: traditional pattern (14%), double-track pattern (16%), unconventional pattern (70%). These proportions are constant across cultures and fields of study. For the francophone subjects, they also do not vary according to gender. On the other hand, female anglophone students prefer the traditional pattern to a greater degree and the unconventional pattern to a lesser degree than their male counterparts. These differences are of a small magnitude and do not reverse the general conclusion of the study, namely that proportions in career pattern preferences are not affected by other subject variables.

B. Attitudes

Results were analyzed in terms of the relationships of Culture (Francophone vs Anglophone) and Career Pattern (Traditional, Double-track, Unconventional) with Attitudes toward education (Progressivism and Traditionalism). Thus a 2X3 MANOVA was used to analyze the two attitude scores.

A significant Culture X Career Pattern interaction was found (F: 2, 52862; df: 4/1782; p: 0, 039), indicating that variations in attitude scores correspond to differences among subjects both in terms of Culture and Career Pattern. A discriminant function analysis allows to specify this relationship (Table 1) and Figure 1 illustrates the position of each of the six groups of subjects in terms of their attitudes toward education.

* Traditional: To have her children first and then return to school or work only after the children are raised and independent.

Double-Track: To study and/or work at the same time she has her children and raise them.

Unconventional: To study and/or work first and have her children only after being established in a career.

Table 1

Attitudes toward education, standardized coefficients of the discriminant function, means, and weighted scores according to Culture (Francophone, Anglophone) and Career Patterns (Traditional, Double-track, and Unconventional)

Attitude	Coefficient	Francophone			Anglophone		
		T (N:82)	DT (N:97)	U (N:434)	T (N:40)	DT (N:44)	U (N:201)
Progressivism	-.17851	5.09	5.47	5.36	5.10	5.35	5.35
Traditionalism	.98013	4.75	4.09	4.40	4.67	4.60	4.71
Weighted score		2.8384	2.0558	2.3989	2.7564	2.5985	2.7064

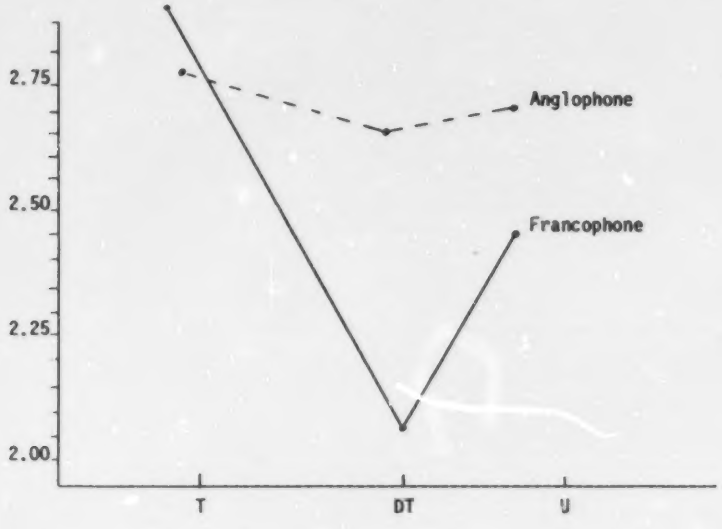

Figure 1. Attitudes toward education (Weighted score) according to Culture and Career Pattern.

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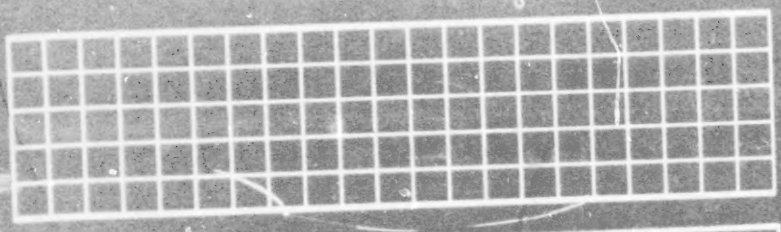

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